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THE CHERNOCHAN MACHINE SHED

UKRAINIAN FARM PRACTICES IN EAST CENTRAL ALBERTA

Occasional Paper
No. 13

March 1985

Sonia Maryn

Alberta
CULTURE

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OCCASIONAL PAPERS

These Occasional Papers are designed to permit the rapid dissemination of information resulting from Historical Resources programmes. They are intended primarily for interested specialists, rather than as popular publications for general readers. In the interests of making information available quickly to these specialists, normal production procedures have been abbreviated.

ABSTRACT

Gregorii and Nastasia Salahub rented SE 33-59-17 W4 and SW 34-59-17 W4 from Kosma Chernochan from 1923-28. Farming practices employed by the Salahubs were influenced by the requirements of their landlord.

The Salahub farm was a one-man operation headed by Peter Salahub - the eldest Salahub boy living on the farm. Gregorii Salahub - the eldest Salahub's poor state of health prevented him from contributing to heavy field chores. One-man farm operations were not uncommon on prairie farms in this era but Peter's youth, coupled with the fact of the Salahubs' tenancy, impeded his level of commitment to this land.

The Salahub farm was a product of its environment. The use of horse-drawn machinery, choice of vehicles, social habits and gardening work were all consistent with prairie farming life during the twenties.

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PREFACE

The following is the narrative history of the Chernochan machine shed. It is the third, and final, report in a series outlining the land use, structural and materials history of the machine shed. This report is intended to facilitate the development of an interpretive programme in relation to the machine shed. It examines the agricultural processes undertaken by the Salahub family during the designated period of interpretation - 1925-28. In turn, the Salahub farmstead is examined within the context of prairie farming in general during the 1920s, and in terms of farming in western Ukraine at the turn of the century.

Iconographic material is interspersed throughout the report to elucidate the discussion at hand. Additionally, three matrixes outlining farm description, land cultivation and crop production are contained in an appendix to the report. These matrixes contain data based on interviews with five selected representatives of prairie farming during the twenties: Peter Salahub (the primary informant for the Chernochan machine shed), Vasyl Slemko, George Elaschuk, Clara Salahub and Bertha Palichuk. The latter two informants are referred to by their birth names in the context of the report; that is, Clara Bateman and Bertha Stone. This group of farmers is referred to as the "sample group" throughout the report, and is cited in this manner in the report endnotes. The group citation refers specifically to the following interviews: Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984; Interview with Vasyl Slemko, Sonia Maryn, May 18, 1984; Interview with George Elashuck, Sonia Maryn, May 12, 1984; Interview with Clara Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984; and Interview with Bertha Palichuk, Sonia Maryn, May 12, 1984.

An attempt has been made to introduce Ukrainian terms into the report where germane, and all of these are listed in Appendix A. Appendix B contains the matrixes noted above. Appendix C contains maps of Western Ukraine and the Smoky Lake region, and Appendixes D, E and F are comprised of materials related to farming in western Canada during the 1920s.

Turabian's manual for writers has been used to determine stylistic points in the text and the Modified Library of Congress System of Transliteration has been employed in the transliteration of Ukrainian terms, place names, and geographical entities. This also applies to Ukrainian proper names, i.e., personal names, of persons contemporaneous to Ukraine and Eastern Europe within the context of the topic. (Exceptions to this rule are those place names that are internationally recognized by an alternate spelling, such as Kiev, and well-known figures [authors, dignitaries] whose names commonly appear in a certain form.) All other personal names are presented as favoured by the individuals concerned or as cited in primary research material.

All measurements are given according to the British Imperial System except in discussions of nineteenth century Ukraine, where their conversion is not easily rendered (i.e. hectares, quintals). Throughout the report, numbers one to nine are written out in full, and numbers 10 and over appear as arabic numerals.

CHAPTER I:

Introduction

Chapter I:

Introduction

A. An Overview and Summary of the Report Structure

The narrative history of the Chernochan machine shed incorporates several elements. As a machine storage shed, this structure housed field machinery and vehicles, as well as other implements each of which played a key role in the farm operation. The manner in which these implements were used on the Salahub farmstead during the years 1925-28 is the focus of this report. The Salahub farmstead viewed in relation to other farm operations in the Smoky Lake area, in east central Alberta, in Alberta as a whole and throughout the prairie provinces, will form the substance of the report. Additionally, farming practices in Ukraine existing at the turn of the century will be examined. Since Gregorii and Nastasia Salahub left their native Bukovyna in 1902,[1] it is the customs and influences of this period that they carried with them to the new land.

By way of introduction, a brief overview capsulizing farming practices in the areas of reference named above will be provided. The Salahub farm operation during the 1920s was a mixed farming enterprise with a heavy emphasis on wheat production. The Salahubs had several pieces of machinery that were stored in the machine shed (shopa). Described as a "full complement" these included a gang plow (dubeltovyi pluh), walking plow (ruchnyi pluh), seed drill (sivarka), binder (bainder), mower (kosarka), hay rake (hrabarka), wagon (viz), and sleigh (sany). A buggy (boga) and cutter (zalubytsi) were also owned briefly by the Salahubs (1926-27) and were kept in the machine shed. All of these implements were horse-drawn. The Salahubs' farm consisted of two quarter sections of land rented from Kosma Chernochan: SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17. In total they were able to farm about 220 acres of improved land.[2]

Figure 1: Gregorii and Nastasia Salahub in their youth, circa 1915. (Peter Salahub Collection, uncatalogued photograph.)

The level of mechanization employed by the Salahubs was relatively consistent with that used throughout the prairie provinces in the mid-1920s. It was, however, far more advanced than the traditional farming techniques used in Ukraine, and particularly in Bukovyna, at the turn of the century. Farming in Western Ukraine during the late nineteenth century and well into the twentieth century was not highly evolved. Using mostly home-made hand tools, the peasantry farmed mainly for personal consumption.[3] Although some rudimentary machinery was in use during this period most of it was wooden and virtually all of it was powered either by hand or animal.[4] The 1902 Austro-Hungarian agricultural census contains some revealing data regarding the widespread under-mechanization of Galicia. Out of one million Galician farmsteads only 266,922 used any machinery whatsoever. Only 1,290 hay rakes (hrabarky) and 702 mowers (kosarky) were in use,[5] and a mere 5,451 machines were animal powered.[6] Three quarters of small landholdings measuring less than two hectares had no horses, while households of two to five hectares averaged a single horse each. Steam engines numbered some 511 while electric motors totalled nine.[7] The latter were only affodable to wealthy manorial estates and were not accessible to the average peasant.[8]

In general, the Ukrainian peasantry owned and farmed small plots of land that decreased further in size as they were divided and sub-divided among sucessive generations of heirs. Although the emancipation of serfs decreed by the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1848 resulted in granting ownership rights to peasants for their traditional plots of land, this same decree eliminated their pasture and forest land privileges. Thus, peasants were forced to pay in cash or labour in order to graze cattle or collect firewood.[9] As as result of its plight, the peasantry was highly impoverished, chronically under-mechanized and vastly overcrowded in farming what little land was available to them. These circumstances were self-perpetuating and offered little hope for a brighter economic future. The eventual result was in the large-scale emigration of Ukrainian peasants to Canada and other countries.

Among these early settlers were Gregorii and Nastasia Salahub who,

Figure 2: A contemporary view of a landscape in Ukrainian ethnographic territory of easterm Slovakia. Note the retention of traditional harvesting methods: haycocks (kopytsi) dot the countryside, piled high to allow hay to cure and dry. (Figure 1 in M. Sopoliga, Narodna Arkhitektura Ukraintsiv Skhidnoi Slovachchyny. Svydnyk: 1976.)

as shall be shown, integrated certain elements of traditional farming practices into their operation. On the whole, however, the Salahub farmstead was more profoundly influenced by its immediate environment and the farming principles applied by the Salahubs were adopted from the mainstream of western Canadian farm life. Nor were the Salahubs unique in this pattern. A report examining the Ukrainian rural communities surrounding the townsites of Mundare, Shandro, Chipman and Lamont, published in 1917, outlines the material, physical and social conditions experienced by Ukrainian farmers following some two decades of initial settlement.[10] The report indicates that the development of Ukrainian farmsteads in east central Alberta progressed along the same lines as farmsteads throughout Alberta. In terms of size, for example, the majority of farms in Alberta increased from 101-200 acres to more than 201 acres between the years 1911 and 1921.[11] In 1917, the Ukrainian rural community of Mundare consisted of 15 farms measuring 320 acres, six farms of 160 acres and four farms measuring 480 acres. The Chipman community had a vast majority of farmers working 160 acres farms, while Lamont had 40 farms measuring 160 acres, 23 farms at 320 acres and 15 at 480 acres.[12] Although the majority of households farmed 160 acres of land, a definite trend toward greater aquisition of land among Ukrainian farmers was already discernible in 1917. This was consistent with farmers throughout Alberta.

The type of farming practiced in these Ukrainian rural communities was mixed farming (crop production coupled with animal husbandry), which was the nature of farming throughout Alberta during the 1920s.[13] The majority of machinery employed by Ukrainian farmers in 1917 was horse-powered. While horses remained a principal source of power on Alberta farms well into the 1920s,[14] the level of mechanization employed on the prairies advanced rapidly throughout the twenties and is worthy of some discussion.

As mentioned above, the Salahub's machinery was all horse-powered. With the exception of threshing unit owners, who required some means of engine power to operate their machines, almost all farmers in the Smoky Lake region did their farming with horse power.[15] Nonetheless, the use

of tractors on Alberta farms increased steadily throughout the decade of the twenties. Sales records for 1919 show 1,703 tractors sold in Alberta and 8,884 sold in all of western Canada. By 1928, sales figures jumped to 6,231 in Alberta and 17,142 in all of western Canada. The total number of tractors sold between 1919 and 1928 was 17,645 for Alberta and 70,786 for all of western Canada.[16] By 1931, tractors had made a significant impact on Alberta farms. The 1931 census figures show that 22.6 percent of Alberta farms used tractors while only 12.6 percent of these farms had threshing units.[17] Clearly, tractors were invading all facets of farming and were not being used for threshing work alone.

The automobile made a similar impact on the Alberta farm scene. Although neither the Salahubs nor any of their neighbours owned an automobile in the late 1920s, by 1931, 42.1 percent of Alberta farm facilities reported an automobile as numbering among their machinery complement. Even higher returns were visible in Saskatchewan and Manitoba, reporting 45.8 and 45.1 percent of farms with automobiles, respectively.[18]

Although these statistics indicate a definite increase in engine-powered machinery and vehicles in use on Alberta farms in the 1920s, it is important to bear in mind that the new technology was introduced and operated, in many instances, side by side with older, less efficient methods of farming. The horse-drawn binder, for example, was used in Alberta from the 1880s until the 1950s.[19]

Whereas combines were readily available in the province during the mid-twenties, few were actually sold. Despite manufacturers' concerted efforts in marketing the combine (such as that extended by the Massey-Harris Company Calgary office, which sent a letter to its sales agents urging them to offer combines to farmers on a trial basis, together with free "quality" service and advice) only five combines were sold in Alberta in 1925. The prohibitive cost of $2,050 per combine may have hindered the number of sales.[20] Only 26 combines were sold in 1926, and 197 in 1927. However, a surge of sales was seen in 1928 with 1,095 units sold, followed by a drop to 858 sales in 1929.[21] Although by 1931 a mere 2.5 percent of Alberta farmers owned combines, this

machine had made a slight but definite dent in the agricultural machinery market.

The level of mechanization was one of several factors that determined the practice of farming employed by the Salahubs during the 1920s. Perhaps the most decisive of these was the farming environment itself; that is, those factors that are non-varying, such as climate and soil, to which other varying factors (machinery, grain growing) must adapt themselves. The Salahub farmstead was located in the parklands region of east central Alberta. Consisting of gently rolling terrain, the farmstead's soil varied from sandy soil in the southeast and southwest sections of SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17, respectively, to fine, black loam throughout the greater portion of SE33-59-17 and a significant part of SW34-59-17. There was, however, a large wasteland or bush area in the southwest section SE33-59-17 as well as through most of the south and east sections of SW34-59-17.[22]

The parklands of Alberta extend throughout east central Alberta and constitute generally rich, fertile land, well watered by lakes and rivers.[23] The area to the south of the parklands is classified as semi-arid prairie and is typified by dry soil.[24] Although the climate of Alberta can be described as having long, warm summer days, pleasant autumns and springs, and cold, dry winters, the amount of precipitation varies greatly between the parklands and southern regions of the province. The parklands receive sufficient rainfall for adequate growth purposes, most of it falling during June and July - the height of the growth period. However, the southern regions of Alberta, like the south of Saskatchewan and southwest corner of Manitoba, receive less than 20 inches of rainfall annually and as such have traditionally been farmed according to specialized dry-farming methods.[25]

These climatic factors greatly influenced the development of farming practices throughout Alberta. It is possible, as as result, to differentiate between farming methods used in the parkland and south regions during the twenties and to point out some obvious distinctions. This subject will be explored in greater detail in later chapters.

The area of occupied, improved and cropped land grew steadily

throughout the prairie provinces from 1901-1931, increasing most dramatically in Saskatchewan.[26] The value of prairie farm products in the first three decades of this century, on the other hand, rose noticeably by 1920, then dropped significantly by 1930 - a development precipitated by the onset of the Great Depression. The most valuable farm product on the prairies throughout the 1920s was by far that of field crops, followed by vegetable, fruit and maple products, and livestock.[27]

In spite of the high value of farm crops most of the one million acres of agricultural land in Alberta was still unplowed in the decade of the twenties.[28] The settlement process was very much under way in Alberta, and this fact is reflected in the government publications of the period many of which were aimed at prospective or new settlers. With titles like Own a Selected Farm to Fit Your Needs Along the Lines of the CNR, Latest News From the West, and Practical Farming in Canada, these publications took the form of books, pamphlets and journals and sought to educate the newcomer to prairie farming techniques.[29]

As noted earlier, the focus of this narrative history will be the field farm operations of the Salahub family from 1925-28. Contextual information regarding farming in Ukraine at the turn of the century, and farming in east central Alberta and the prairie provinces in the 1920s, will provide the framework for this report. The foregoing overview has touched upon a number of general matters that will be examined in greater detail on the following pages. Under each subheading an attempt has been made to integrate data illustrating the specific case of the Salahub farmstead with farms operated by farmers in the Smoky Lake region and other areas of Alberta. Three matrixes (see Appendix B) have been prepared comparing the farmsteads of three Smoky Lake region farmers - Salahubs, Slemkos and Elaschuks - and two central Alberta farmers - Batemans and Stones. This group as as whole is termed the "sample group" and forms a basis of comparison throughout the text.

A brief summary of lifestyle factors affecting the Salahub farm operation is provided as additional introductory matter. This section outlines the inter-relationships between members of the Salahub family,

in terms of how they determined the overall farming picture. Additionally, the personal habits of Peter Salahub are touched upon. An attempt has been made to provide subjective commentary of these personal habits and link them to the farm operation as well.

The bulk of the narrative history examines agricultural field work and its various exigencies. The theory of grain growing, forage crops and soil management forms one section and is followed by a discussion of the actual crop production cycle. Transportation means, tasks associated with horses, and gardening techniques complete this chapter.

The daily schedules of the individuals who played a role in performing field work on the Salahub farmstead are delineated in a separate chapter. The final chapter contains concluding remarks regarding the Chernochan machine shed narrative history.

B. Lifestyle Factors

(i) Relationships

The inter-relationships of the Salahub family played a large role in determing the functioning of their farm operation. A major factor which fell outside of the schema of family relationships, but was critical, was that the farm itself was rented. This fact alone relegated the Salahubs to something of a secondary role in the farm operation. They rented the land on a third bushel (tretyi bushel) basis. This meant that every third bushel of grain they produced was paid to the landlord in exchange for use of his land. However, they had to conform to the preferences of the landlord, Kosma Chernochan. Since Kosma required that the vast majority of land be in wheat, this was what the Salahubs cropped. The fact that this decision was basically out of the Salahubs' hands, coupled with the knowledge that the farmstead was a temporary arrangement, coloured their attitude toward the farm operation to a considerable degree.[1]

Relationships among family members play a large role in determining lifestyle and work habits. The Salahubs were no exception to this rule. Moreover, the very nature of their lives as a farm family demanded

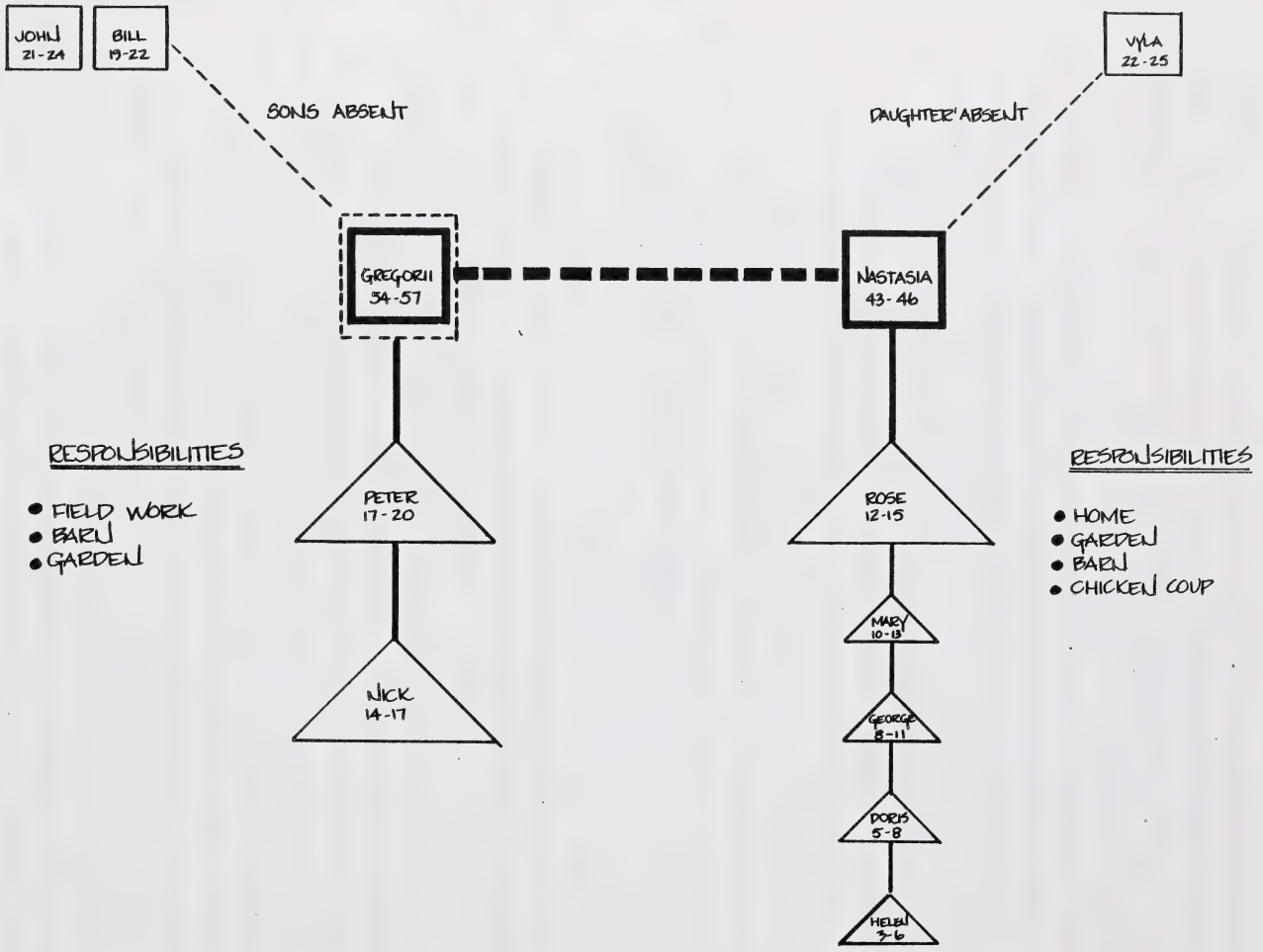


Figure 3: The inter-relationships of members of the Salahub family, and their ages from 1925-28. This scheme depicts Gregorii and Nastasia as heads of the household, each responsible for certain areas of farm work. Gregorii is outlined with a dotted line, indicating his delegation of responsibility to his son, Peter. Nick and Rose contribute to the family chores, while Vyla, John and Bill are absent from the household, and Mary, George, Doris and Helen are too young to have independent duties. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

much familial interaction both in home activities, as well as in farm chores and field work. Several external factors also contributed toward labour distribution. The major one was the state of Gregorii Salahub's health. By 1925, Gregorii was 54 years old and having suffered a serious accident some years earlier, one that left him suffering frequent chest pains and related ailments, he was no longer able to perform strenuous tasks. Gregorii would eventually be diagnosed as having cancer, and during the mid-twenties he was already experiencing the debilitating effects of this disease. Although Gregorii was regarded as the head of the household he looked to his sons to fulfill the responsibilities he himself was unable to perform.[2]

Another factor affecting work distribution was that the eldest Salahub boy, John, was married by 1925 and worked on his own farm. This initially left two boys, Bill and Peter to divide the work between them. However, they soon realized that there was too little work on these two quarter sections of land to occupy both men. Nor did they own double sets of machinery to enable both men to work simultaneously. Thus, Bill, the elder of the two, sought work as hired help soon after the Salahubs moved onto the Chernochan farm in 1923. This left Peter to shoulder the responsibilities of working the farm. He was, in fact, its principal worker from 1923 until 1928 at which time the family moved to Lac La Biche.[3]

Peter was assisted in field work to some extent by Gregorii, who occasionally operated a farm implement. Peter's younger brother, Nick, was still a schoolboy in these years and helped mainly by stooking in the harvest season. His youngest brother, George, was still a child. None of the Salahub girls performed field work tasks. The eldest, Vyla, was married by 1923 and never lived on the Chernochan farm, while Mary, Doris and Helen were all children. Rose was an adolescent at the time and helped her mother in the house and garden and with general farm chores. In harvest and during threshing she delivered late afternoon lunches (pryvechirok) to the men as they worked in the field.[4]

In spite of the fact that the Salahub girls did no field work, this work was not restricted to males alone. It appears that in families where there were mature boys, these boys did the field work. But in those families where there were no male children or boys who were too young to perform these duties, it was not unusual for girls to harness and hitch horses and operate machinery. There seem to have been limitations, however. Clara Bateman, for example, was the eldest of four girls, all of whom worked the fields. Although she hitched and drove the wagon, her family had a hired man to work the farm machinery. Bertha Stone, the eldest of three girls and three boys, also harnessed and hitched horses "just like a man" but was only allowed to operate the harrow on the field.[5]

(ii) Personal Habits

An ongoing discussion of Peter Salahub's personal habits in performing field and other farm work will be incorporated into relevant sections of this work. It is necessary, however, to bear one thing in mind. This is the fact that the Salahubs were living on a rented farm, that is, one not owned by them. Their intention was to save money working this farm as efficiently and economically as possible and then to purchase their own homesteads with their savings. This was their chief priority. As mentioned above, they were hampered even in this as they were obliged to grow only wheat (with a smattering of rye) on the two quarter sections.[6]

As shall be seen, this was a major determining factor in the farm operation of the Salahub family during the late 1920s.

Figure 4: The Salahub family and friends, circa 1938. Peter is second from the right standing next to Nastasia. Nick is seated at far right and George is standing at far left. Rose is third from the left. (Rose Bronson Collection, uncatalogued photograph.)

ENDNOTES

CHAPTER I:

Introduction

A. An Overview and Summary of the Report Structure

1. Unrecorded Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, January 27, 1984.

2. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

3. Ukraine: A Concise Encyclopedia, 1971 ed., s.v. "Agriculture in Western Ukraine before 1914," by I. Vytanovych.

4. V. Horlenko, "Vid rala i kosy do traktora i kombaina," Narodna tvorchist ta etnohrafiia, 4 (1968): 35.

5. Roman Sandgruber, Osterreichische Agrarstatistik 1750-1918 (Munich: R. Oldenbourge Verlag, 1978), p. 224.

6. I. I. Kompaniets, Stanovyshche i borotba trudiashchykh mas Halychyny, Bukovyny ta Zakarpattia na pochatku XX st., (1900-1919) (Kiev: Vydavnytstvo Akedemii Nauk URSR, 1960), p. 40.

7. Sandgruber, Agrarstatistik, p. 224.

8. Himka, John-Paul, "The Background to Emigration: Ukrainians of Galicia and Bukovyna, 1848-1914," in A Heritage in Transition, ed. Manoly R. Lupul, (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1982), p. 14.

9. Ibid., pp. 12-14.

10. Frances Swyripa, "The Ukrainian Bloc in East Central Alberta," vol. 1, (Alberta Culture, Report to the Director of the Ukrainian Cultural Heritage Village, 1976).

11. 1931 Canadian census, Agriculture, Table XIII, p. xliv.

12. Swyripa, Bloc.

13. P. G. Weatherell and Associates Ltd., Mixed Farmyards in Alberta, 1895-1955 (Alberta Culture, Reynolds-Alberta Museum, Background Paper 15, January 1984), p. 7.

14. Ibid., p. 95.

15. Interviews with George Elaschuk, May 12, 1984, Peter Salahub, May 10, 1984 and Vasyl Slemko, May 18, 1984, Sonia Maryn.

16. "Power on Western Farms," The Nor'West Farmer, May 20, 1930, p. 16.

17. 1931 Canadian census, Agriculture, Table XXIX, p. lxxiv.

18. Ibid.

19. Dallas C. Ward, Grain Cutting Implements in Alberta, 1870-1950 (Alberta Culture, Reynolds-Alberta Museum, Background Paper 7, February 1983), p. 2.

20. Ibid., and Massey Harris Co. Ltd., Correspondence and Papers, 1924-26, Glenbow Archives Acc. No. BR.M416A.

21. Ward, Grain, pp. 3-4.

22. See Sonia Maryn, "The Chernochan Machine Shed: Land Use and Structural History," Alberta Culture, Historic Sites Service, December 1983.

23. Kathleen Strange, With the West in Her Eyes (Toronto: George J. McLeod, 1937), p. 9.

24. Ernest B. Ingles, "Some Aspects of Dry-Land Agriculture in the Canadian Prairies to 1925," M.A. thesis, University of Calgary, 1973, p. 7.

25. Ibid., p. 5.

26. 1931 Canadian census, Agriculture, p. xli.

27. Ibid., p. 49.

28. Strange, West, p. 9.

29. Own a Selected Farm to Fit Your Needs Along the Lines of the CNR (Chicago: CNR Industrial and Resources Department, 1923) and Pratical Farming in Canada, (London: Colonization, Agriculture and Natural Resources Department, 1924?).

B. Lifestyle Factors

1. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

   Note: The informant repeated a number of times that the farm was owned by Kosma Chernochan and the Salahubs had little to say in decision-making matters. They did "what Kosma wanted."

2. Unrecorded Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, January 27, 1984.

3. Ibid.

4. Ibid., and Unrecorded Interview with Rose Bronson, Sonia Maryn, February 15, 1984.

5. Interviews with Bertha Palichuk, May 12, 1984, and Clara Salahub, May 9, 1984, Sonia Maryn.

6. Interview with Peter Salahub, May 10, 1984.

CHAPTER II:

Field Work

Chapter II:

Field Work

A. Grain Growing, Forage Crops and Soil Management

(i) General Introduction

The theory of agricultural field work involves several elements that can be organized under three main rubrics: grain growing, forage crops and soil management. It is important to note from the outset that the success of the main enterprise - grain growing - depends largely on the benefits garnered from proper soil management and the cultivation of forage crops. A good grain yield is contingent on the condition and cultivation of soil, the quality of seed sown, and the weather.[1] Moreover, soil is not of one quality throughout an entire farm, nor in individual fields. Its consistency, the ease with which it can be worked, its depth, drainage, colour, and capacity for moisture retention are all traits that vary in large measure.[2]

Moisture retention is a particularly crucial problem in the southern prairies where rainfall levels are low and lands are subject to dry winds. In the past, conditions such as these have given rise to alternate methods of tillage and crop production. In the early 1920s, following several exceptionally dry years and the successive production of a single crop (wheat) on farms in southern Alberta, new implements (duckfoot cultivator, spring tooth harrow) and strip farming were introduced as means of rejuvenating exhausted soil.[3] Strip farming required rectangular fields to be cultivated across the path of prevailing winds and alternated between strips of fallow and crop land. It successfully reduced soil drifting and aided in the recuperation of the soil's productive powers.

Farming practices were covered extensively in various agricultural

journals, pamphlets and other types of publications during the 1920s. Enlightening the average farmer was the priority of these works. The nature of this material, and its effectiveness in influencing farmers will also be examined in this section.

Another important factor in grain growing is the proper selection, cleaning and treatment of seed. As early as 1911, the Canada Seed Control Act was passed to regulate the grading of grass, clover and alfalfa sold as seed. In 1923, this Act was extended to include the regulation of all grain seed.[4]

The 1931 census figures indicate that the principal field crop in Alberta was spring wheat (75.7 percent), followed by oats (62.2 percent) and barley (27.1 percent). Very little fall wheat was planted in Alberta (0.6 percent). Similar statistics were recorded for Saskatchewan. Interestingly, Manitoba showed its principal crop to be oats (70.1 percent), followed by barley (67.4 percent), and lastly, spring wheat (63.5 percent).[5] In terms of actual acreage of field crops possessed by these principal crops, wheat was highest for all three prairie provinces. As seen in Table 1, wheat acreages increased during the period 1920-1930 in Alberta and Saskatchewan, but dropped in Manitoba, where barley made a significant increase.[6] The significance of barley growing will be discussed separately, as will all the major grains grown in Alberta during the twenties.

Table 1: Percent of the total acreage of field crops possessed by the principal crops in the prairie provinces, 1920-1930.

Province and Year		Wheat	Oats	Barley	Other cereals & flax
Alberta	1920	50.88	33.92	4.55	2.95
	1930	66.67	18.16	5.86	1.96
Saskatchewan	1920	60.72	27.87	2.38	6.22
	1930	65.35	16.85	8.16	6.00
Manitoba	1920	46.12	30.72	13.79	4.79
	1930	36.32	22.64	30.13	3.23

Whereas wheat was undoubtedly the main crop sown in western Canada during the 1920s, it stood in second place to oats in many regions of Ukraine at the turn of the century. Oats were particularly popular in the hilly terrain of the Lemko and Boiko regions of Western Ukraine. In the Boiko region the main crop sown was oats (oves) both winter and spring (iare). Barley (iachmin), potatoes (bulba), some winter wheat and spring wheat (pshenytsia) followed oats as other major crops. Buckwheat (hrechka) and rye (zhyto) were also grown.[7] The Lemko region was also characterized by its predilection for oats. Because of an unusually hilly terrain, concentrated grain growing was conducted only in the rolling areas of countryside. Crop production in the steep, hilly areas was only for the purpose of sustenance.[8]

It is interesting to note that high acreages of oats were also reported by the Ukrainian farmers of east central Alberta during their early years of settlement. The 1917 Ukrainian Rural Communities report shows oats and wheat with the highest levels of cropping.[9] The 1921 Census figures indicate that the Smoky Lake area (which had a large percentage of Ukrainian farmers during the 1920s) cropped a majority of acreage in oats - 51.9 percent in oats as compared to 29.0 percent in wheat, and 13.9 percent in barley.[10]

To summarize, the principal crops grown in Alberta during the 1920s included wheat, oats and barley. Other cereals, such as flax and rye, played a secondary role on the whole. The manner in which these grains were cultivated and rotated with forage crops will be dealt with in the following sections.

(ii) Wheat, Oats, Barley, Flax and Rye

During the 1920s, wheat was the primary Canadian crop. It played an important role in attracting population migration and immigration to the west and in developing a major grain industry. The growth of the wheat industry in Canada within two decades was extraordinary: from 56 million bushels of wheat produced in 1900 to 470 million in 1923. As a grain, wheat is particularly adapted to the prairie provinces of Canada. The dry climate and warm summer comprised of long days with many hours of

Figure 5: Stooks standing on a wheat field on the Detwiller farm, Rockyford, Alberta, circa 1920. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P553.)

sunshine are conducive to its growth.[11] Of the three prairie provinces, Saskatchewan was the largest producer of wheat. In the mid-twenties, its production of wheat alone equaled the annual produce of the rest of Canada, and earned the province the distinction of being the region where "wheat is king."[12]

Wheat was usually the first crop planted in new land and after summer fallow during the twenties. Usually it was cropped two years in succession, then followed by oats or barley.[13] Although this was not always the case - the Slemko, Bateman and Stone families all reported growing wheat only one year (see Appendix B) - it does appear that farmers cropped wheat on land that had been rejuvenated to some degree, either by summer fallowing or a root crop.[14]

The majority of wheat seeded in western Canada was spring wheat. In some parts of southern Alberta winter wheat was seeded in the fall. Although it had higher yields than spring wheat the harsh winter climate of Alberta is generally not suited to winter gestation, rendering the widescale cultivation of winter wheat unprofitable.[15]

Wheat seed was generally cleaned and treated before seeding took place. Cleaning was done in fanning mills to remove weed seeds and other impurities. The seed was then treated by a composition known as formalin, consisting of 40 percent formaldehyde and 60 percent water. Generally, seed was either dipped in the solution or sprinkled with it.[16]

Formalin was used by the Salahubs and other farmers of Alberta.[17] Vasyl Slemko, a resident of the Smoky Lake region during the twenties, reports that the practice among his neighbours was to douse the seed with large quantities of formalin (formalina) and use a shovel to distribute it through the seed.[18] The purpose of this treatment process was to eliminate diseases such as smut which adhere to the kernel of wheat seed.[19]

In some operations, such as that conducted by the Strange family in Fenn (central Alberta) cleaning was a much more complicated and systematized process. The Stranges grew wheat for seed during the 1920s, and were compelled to follow exact scientific methods of preparation and

production in order to meet government regulations. They cleaned their seed over a prolonged period of time throughout the fall months, using an imported Marot cleaner from France. They spent the late fall and winter selecting and comparing seed heads for individual plots of land, and on the whole were extremely meticulous in their operation.[20]

Different varieties of wheat seed were available during the twenties and were selected for high yields, early ripening, high milling quality and disease resistance. The most widely grown wheat on Canadian farms during the twenties was Marquis, a cross of Red Fife and Hard Red Calcutta. It had a 100-day ripening period, a little longer than the Garnet, Red Bobs, Kitchener and Ruby varieties, but was a hard red wheat with a high milling value. Garnet wheat was a new variety of wheat in 1924 and was recommended for dry areas. Red Fife was a forerunner to Marquis wheat. It ripened five to 14 days later than Marquis and produced smaller yields. Red Bobs was an early ripener but had not overtaken Marquis in popularity during the twenties. Other varieties of spring wheat which were of lesser value but cropped nonetheless were Kota, Prelude, Pioneer, White Fife and Preston. It is interesting to note that both the Salahub and Slemko families still used Red Fife (Chervona Vusata) during the mid-twenties, despite the fact that Marquis was considered to be of superior quality and was widely available. These families eventually did sow Marquis as well.[21]

Oats were the second most important grain crop produced in Canada. It was widely accepted as a nutritious food for horses and was, therefore, fed almost exclusively as a grain ration to horses during the twenties. It was not unusual, for example, especially in areas where hay was scarce, for oat sheaves to be cut before they had ripened and used as feed for horses and cattle. Oats were also used as a silage mix, usually with sunflowers, and fed to dairy cattle. Oats were also commonly seeded with a mix of peas as pasture land.[22]

Generally, oats were grown in Alberta largely in the wooded or parkland areas, which comprise much of east central Alberta. They were seeded in heavier land where wheat could not be seeded early enough. On grain growing land, oats were usually rotated after wheat. This was the

Figure 6: A Saskatchewan farmer standing in his oat field near Lloydminster, circa 1920. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P626.)

practice among the Elaschuk, Slemko, Batemen and Stone families (see Appendix B).

Oats prefer a moist loam soil and require less rain than wheat. Soil need not be cultivated as carefully for their growth as for wheat since the crop is easier to grow and can be seeded later than wheat. As mentioned above, oats (oves) was the most important crop in the hilly regions of Western Ukraine. It was usually seeded in the largest plots in the Boiko region. In the Lemko area, oats was the first crop to be sown in spring, preceeding rye (iare zhyto), wheat (pshenytsia) and barley (iachmin). Fields were not worked as much for oats as for rye and wheat, as it was expected they would ripen with less difficulty.[23]

Varieties of oats cropped in Canada were not as numerous as those used for wheat. Victory, Banner, Gold Rain and Abundance were widely used with Victory enjoying the greatest popularity in western Canada. These brands all boasted high yields, good sizes and shapes, and a thin hull suitable for milling purposes. Other brands of oats included Liberty, Leader and Pioneer.[24]

Barley was the third principal crop produced on the prairies during the 1920s. Although not as extensively grown as wheat or oats, it was known as the "feeder's grain" and fed to hogs and cattle. Often it was crushed and mixed together with oats for added nutrition.

A major advantage to growing barley is that this grain requires less rainfall than either wheat or oats, and can grow in various climates. Although it does not do well on wet, poorly drained land, it takes less time to ripen than any other grain and can be seeded well after other grain crops. The six-row varieties of barley available during the twenties took some 88 days to ripen. Two-row varieties required a little more time.[25]

Other advantages of barley growing included its regenerative capacities for soil - a quality that gained much attention in the agricultural journals of the twenties. The Farmer's Advocate and Home Magazine referred to barley as a good cleaning crop in a 1925 article. It lauded barley as a potentially excellent cash crop if produced with care in the choice of variety, cultivation and handling.[26] Similar

Figure 7: A prairie farmer and his son stand in the middle of their barley field testing grain for ripeness, circa 1921. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P625.)

articles appeared in the Farmer's Advocate and other journals throughout the mid-twenties. The Grain Grower's Guide titled an article devoted to the positive points in growing barley "Our Most Neglected Crop."[27] The author of this article argued that the import market for barley was vast and untapped by Canadian farmers. Great Britain alone was importing 33 million bushels of barley annually, yet Canadians were not producing a good quality malting grain, such as the two-row variety of barley used for British beer brewing. The author advised that in growing barley it must be evenly ripened and sound; of a pure type and strain; have high germination capacity and be of a good size; and finally, contain an albium content level that did not exceed 13 percent for six-row and 12 percent for two-row varieties. Barley was not to be cut too early nor could it be allowed to over-ripen. Varieties recommended for barley growing included two and six-row types (that is, heads with either two or six rows of grain) such as Canadian Thorpe and O.A.C.21.

In Western Ukraine, barley (iachmin) was treated as a secondary crop, ranking behind wheat and oats in importance.[28] It was usually sown after oats and before rye (zhyto).

Flax and other cereals were grown in Alberta in much smaller quantities (1.96 percent in 1930) as detailed in Table 1. They were grown in somewhat greater quantities in Saskatchewan (6 percent in 1930) and in Manitoba (3.23 percent in 1930).[29] In western Canada flax was grown for seed, although elsewhere in the country it was also grown for fibre. Often it was planted on newly broken land and was particularly adept at surviving as a first crop on heavy soil. In fact, heavy soil usually produced the best results for flax production. Flax did not prosper in light soil because of its small seed grain. It required additional seed bed preparation to achieve adequate growth conditions. Flax generally required a firm seed bed, not one that was loose and fine.[30]

An advantage to flax production was that flax could be seeded after all other grains and thus field work was distributed over a longer period of time. Another advantage was that whereas wheat removed more soluble nitrogen and plant food from the soil, flax did not exhaust soil in this

manner. However, it could not be grown on land two years in succession since a disease known as "flax wilt" was likely to occur in the second year of growth.[31]

Although flax was not cropped widely in Alberta during the twenties (it was not grown at all in the Smoky Lake region)[32] it was popular in Western Ukraine at the turn of the century. Both flax (lon) and hemp (konopli) were commonly produced for oil and fibre. The Salahubs themselves carried on the tradition of raising hemp for oil, planting hemp in their garden on a regular basis.[33]

The last cereal grain to be examined is rye. Rye was produced in small quantities on the prairie provinces during the twenties. Only 4.5 percent of the total cropped acreage in Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba was devoted to rye growth. This figure compares with 31.4 percent for barley and is only slightly higher than the 4.3 percent of land used for flax production.[34] Although obviously not a principal crop (neither the Elaschuk, Slemko, Bateman or Stone families grew rye during the twenties), rye was grown by the Salahub family - albeit in relatively small measure - and deserves some recognition.

Rye was not a profitable crop during the twenties. It was usually reserved for poor, exhausted lands since it was a hardy grain and not as susceptible to cold and drought as other grains. Winter rye was more prevalent in western Canada than winter wheat because of its ability to endure the winter months and ripen earlier than wheat.[35] The Salahubs, however, grew only spring rye (zhyto). Often rye was used as a cleaning crop on weedy land, but the Salahubs grew their rye on the sandy regions of SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17 (see Figures 16 and 17) and sold it as a cash crop.[36]

Rye was one of the major crops seeded in Western Ukraine at the turn of the century. In the Boiko region only spring rye (iare zhyto) was grown. It followed oats in seeding and required much prior preparation of soil. Plowing (orania) was often conducted two months before the seeding of rye in order to adequately prepare the soil. Land would remain in furrows (borozny) for the two-month period before harrowing (volochinnia) and seeding (siiania) took place.[37]

(iii) Forage Crops

Forage crops were defined during the twenties as crops which were usually fed to livestock and grown to keep soil fertile. They excluded those crops that were seeded for grain threshing purposes. Essentially, forage crops can be divided into four separate categories: hay and fodder crops; pasture crops; ensilage or silage crops; and root crops.[38] These categories will be treated individually. However, it is worthwhile to make some general comments regarding the production of forage crops or "green feed" as they were known colloquially.[39]

Agricultural specialists of the 1920s highly recommended not only practicing mixed farming on western Canadian farms, but growing a mixture of grain and forage crops.[40] The purpose of the latter was two-fold. First, forage crops were necessary for purposes of feeding livestock on the mixed farming enterprise, and second, they performed the all-important task of cleaning and revitilizing land. Forage crops were grown on the prairies in lesser proportion that they were in eastern Canada, largely due to the grain growing emphasis of prairie farms. Table 2 illustrates the breakdown of various types of forage crops on the prairies in 1920 and 1930.[41]

Table 2: Percent of the total acreage of field crops possessed by forage crops in Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba, 1920-1930.

Province and Year		Hay Cultivated	Other Forage Crops	Potatoes	Field Roots
Alberta	1920	2.72	4.67	0.30	0.01
	1930	2.42	4.56	0.25	0.12
Saskatchewan	1920	0.17	2.45	0.19	-
	1930	0.90	2.56	0.18	-
Manitoba	1920	1.18	2.88	0.49	0.03
	1930	4.65	2.44	0.56	0.03

Clearly, forage crops were grown in greater concentrations in Alberta and Manitoba, whereas in Saskatchewan wheat dominated (65.35 percent of all crops in 1930). However, the amount of individual crops grown varied from province to province. Thus, we see that in 1930 Alberta cultivated less hay than Manitoba but much more than Saskatchewan. It grew more field roots than either of the other two prairie provinces. In fact, Saskatchewan's output was so low it registered less than one-tenth of a percentage point in both 1920 and 1930.[42]

A closer examination of this breakdown in the province of Alberta and in the Smoky Lake region will be even more elucidating. It is interesting to note that the distribution of land between forage and grain crop production was consistent for the Smoky Lake district and for the province as a whole in 1930 - about 93 percent for grain production and 7 percent for forage crop production. The most popular fodder crops in Alberta during the twenties were timothy and brome grasses, and alfalfa. The most popular fodder crops grown in Smoky Lake, however, were timothy and brome grasses, and clover. Alfalfa formed only 0.19 percent of the total fodder crop for the Smoky Lake district in 1930. Other crops measured as follows: timothy - 1.2% (Smoky Lake) and 11.8% (Alberta); timothy and clover - 2.4% (Smoky Lake) and 1.1% (Alberta); alfalfa - 0.2% (Smoky Lake) and 5.6% (Alberta); sweet clover - 7.7% (Smoky Lake) and 3.0% (Alberta); and brome grass - 2.0% (Smoky Lake) and 9.9% (Alberta). Grain cut for hay formed 5.3 percent of the forage crop in Smoky Lake and 5.6 percent in the province, while grain cut for summer feeding measured 5.8 percent in Smoky Lake and 4.6 percent in the province. Exceptionally low outputs of corn and sunflowers were reported for the Smoky Lake area. Whereas corn formed 0.3 percent of the province's output and sunflowers measured 0.1 percent of the forage total, only two acres of corn and nine acres of sunflowers were reported in the Smoky Lake district in 1930.[43]

Interestingly, potatoes and root crop statistics show the Smoky Lake area as growing a higher percentage of potatoes than the provincial rate - 7.2 percent for Smoky Lake and only 3.4 percent for the province.

Smoky Lake grew 9.1 percent of the province's total output of turnips and swedes, 8.8 percent of the mangolds and sugar beets grown for feed, and 11.7 percent of the province's carrots grown for feed.[44] Root crops for purposes of feeding were grown in significant proportions in Smoky Lake, yet neither the Salahubs, Elaschuks nor the Slemkos grew any during the twenties.[45]

The main category of forage crop to be dealt with is that of hay and fodder. It included hay cultivated from grass and clover, wild hay from meadows, and straw from threshed grain. The great advantage of these crops was that they required tilling only every three to five years. As mentioned above, the most popular grasses grown were timothy and brome, but other grasses, such as western rye and meadow fescue were also native to the prairies. Generally, higher concentrations of land were cropped under hay and clover where there were larger numbers of livestock. Timothy grass seems to have been the most widespread grass throughout the parkland regions of Alberta. Although it was poor in nutrition it was climatically resistant and travelled well when baled.[46] Both the Salahub and Slemko families cropped brome grass, however, while the Elaschuks cut and cured the wild hay scattered throughout their farm. The Slemkos also grew alfalfa - indicating a progressive outlook on their behalf.[47]

Special mention should be made of alfalfa, which gained increased attention throughout the twenties as an excellent forage crop. Alfalfa was coined "king of forage crops" during the mid-twenties because of its high yielding capacity, perennial qualities and resuscitative effect on soil.[48] As can be seen in Figure 8, alfalfa is an exceptionally deep-rooted plant. It could be grown in almost every type of soil and produced two to three crops of hay annually. Pasturing usually followed the second crop. Although prairie farmers rejected the notion of alfalfa during the early 1900s, by the mid-twenties alfalfa was touted as an essential leguminous forage integral to prairie crop rotation.[49] It choked weeds from the fields, supplied nitrogen to soil, and once plowed under decayed into a rich humus. Finally, its long root system drew moisture up to the soil surface, giving the plant definite drought

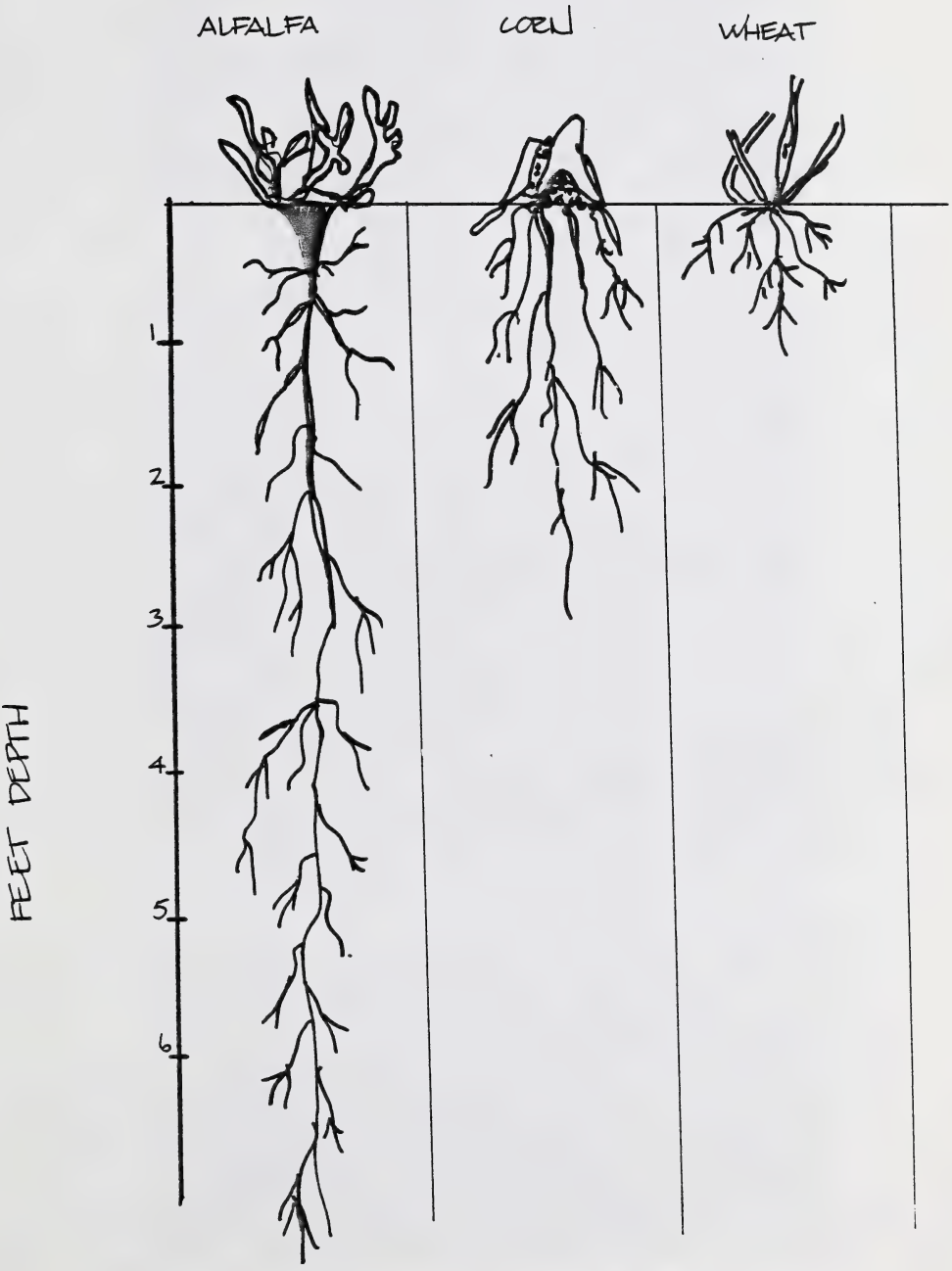


Figure 8: The deep root system of alfalfa as compared to corn and wheat is depicted here. Alfalfa was highly recommended during the twenties as an excellent forage crop to improve soil and its moisture content. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

resistant properties.[50]

Pasture land was available in east central Alberta in large measure during the twenties. Uncultivated, wild land was suited to pasturing purposes and, according to one informant, cattle grazed alongside roads or even in neighbours' meadows on a regular basis.[51] This practice was also habitual in Ukraine. The Salahubs grazed their cattle by the roadside and occasionally on grassland by a small creek in the south section of SW34-59-17.[52]

Pasture could also be seeded, and a popular practice during the mid-twenties was to seed clover with grain in spring. The young clover grew with the grain crop then following harvest could be pastured in the fall.[53] Clover is another leguminous plant that recycles nutritious elements to the soil. Like alfalfa it played a vital role in improving soil, in addition to serving as valuable grazing material. Popular clovers seeded throughout Alberta were alsike, sweet clover, white Dutch clover and red clover. Red clover grew best on wheat or barley land since these crops were cut earlier, giving the clover a better chance of prospering once the grain was removed. Clover was not generally pastured closely in fall in order to ensure that it wintered well. It could be cut for hay the following summer and pastured once again. Clover was beneficial in maintaining soil fertility particularly in sandy loam soil. It also helped to loosen heavy clay soil and increase its productivity.

Although these practices were underway in Alberta during the mid-twenties, none of the sample group recalled the sowing of pasture land as a common occurrence then. They themselves all grazed livestock on natural grassland.[54]

Ensilage or silage crops, such as corn and sunflowers, were grown for forage purposes as well. Corn was regarded as an excellent silage, especially in winter feeding. Like alfalfa and clover crops, it also improved soil. Figure 8 illustrates the longer root of corn which helps to draw moisture to the soil's surface. In one regard corn was more beneficial to soil's reconstitution than summer fallowing. Wheat yields were higher on former corn fields than on former summer fallow fields.[55] Nonetheless, very little silage was grown in the Smoky Lake

Figure 9: Alfalfa drying in short stacks on the Smith farm near Vauxhall, Alberta, circa 1921. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P577.)

district. The 1931 census records only nine acres of sunflowers and a mere two acres of corn seeded in the entire district. Both crops showed low returns province-wide - 0.3 percent for corn and 0.17 percent for sunflowers. In general, informants felt that silage crops were restricted to the southern regions of the province, although one informant, Clara Bateman, did recall her father seeding one-half acre of sunflowers on their farm from time to time.[56]

Corn has a higher feeding value than sunflowers and sunflowers were often mixed with oats to improve their nutritional value. Both crops were preserved in silos.[57] Patents were granted during the mid-twenties on a new ensilage cutter which cut the crop and deposited it into a wagon travelling alongside. It was recommended for heavy crops of sunflowers.[58]

No such ensilage cutters were available in Western Ukraine at the turn of the century, although corn and sunflowers were grown in abundance, particularly in Bukovyna. Corn (kukurudza) was considered a major food for sustenance and was ground for flour and used in cornmeal gruel (mamalyga) or as boiled cornflour (kulesha). Sunflowers (soniashnyky) were grown for oil. Similarly, root crops were grown in vegetable gardens for personal consumption only.[59]

As indicated in Table 2, field roots constituted a very small percentage of the total acreage of forage crops in the prairie provinces in 1920-1930. The highest concentration of field roots, however, was grown in Alberta (0.12 percent in 1930 as compared to 0.03 percent for Manitoba and even less for Saskatchewan). As mentioned earlier, the Smoky Lake district produced approximately one-tenth of the province's carrots, turnips and mangolds used for forage purposes, none of which was cropped by the Salahubs, Slemkos or Elaschuks.[60] However, the Bateman family regularly grew a patch of mangolds in their vegetable garden for forage purposes,[61] and in some areas of the province field roots were grown extensively.[62] One deterrent to the cropping of field roots during the twenties may have been the high degree of hand labour required in their production.[63] The crop had to be hoed regularly and many farms could not afford to expend the added labour.

Figure 10: Haycocks (kopytsi) lining a contemporary landscape in Ukrainian ethnographic territory of eastern Slovakia. Note how high these haycocks are stacked to ensure proper curing. (Figure 105 in M. Sopoliga, Narodna Arkhitektura Ukraintsiv Skhidnoi Slovachchyny. Svydnyk: 1976.)

Varieties of mangolds included Grant Yellow Globe (which was considered to be best for prairie lands), Grant Yellow Intermediate and Mammoth Long Red, and were fed mainly to dairy cattle. Swede turnips included Good Luck, Perfection and Canadian Gem variants, and were fed to young cattle, steers and sheep, while field carrots were primarily fed to horses and included Improved Short White and White Belgian - the latter being best suited for prairie growth.[64] Proper feeding of livestock could improve the quality of livestock dramatically; however, this was not always within the means of individual farmers.

One of the main advantages to forage crop growing on the prairies during the 1920s was the potential for adequate, effective crop rotation. Typical crop rotation practiced in western Canada during those years was similar to that employed by members of the sample group - wheat, wheat, oats, summer fallow in a four-year period. Only rarely was manure applied to lands, and forage crops were not regularly alternated with grain crops. The long-term result of this was the gradual deterioration of soil.[65] As noted by Ernest Ingles in his work regarding dry-land farming in the southern prairie provinces, continuous wheat cropping was extensive throughout these regions for several years during the early 1900s. The result was greatly damaged soil. The notion that diversifying crops led to strengthened soil gradually gained acceptance. By the mid-twenties, however, agricultural specialists were strongly advocating crop rotation with forage crops.[66]

The regular rotation of crops on farms ensured larger net returns and improved soil. Overall it reduced the chance of complete crop failure while certain crops fought weeds, enriched soil, increased moisture levels and decreased the chance of plant diseases. In addition, crop rotation helped to systematize farm work and distributed labour more equitably. A number of patterns of rotation, as illustrated by Table 3 were recommended.[67]

Figure 11: Sunflowers were a popular silage crop during the twenties. Here is an exceptionally tall crop on the Staples farm near Vauxhall, Alberta, circa 1925. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P650.)

Table 3: Crop rotation using forage crops in a five and six-year system.

	Five-Year	Six-Year
First Year	wheat	wheat
Second Year	wheat	wheat
Third Year	Indian corn	oats or barley
Fourth Year	oats or barley	hay
Fifth Year	hay	pasture
Sixth Year	-	Indian corn

These systems ensured that the farm's main area of concentration would be grain, resulting in major cash crops each season, while providing fodder crops for livestock feeding and improved soil.

As indicated in the Land Cultivation Matrix of Appendix B, only the Salahub family practiced no form of crop rotation, concentrating almost exclusively on wheat production. The other families rotated only with grain crops and summer fallowing, seeding no forage crops on a regular basis.

In Western Ukraine, the two and three-field system of farming was practiced up to the turn of the century. Under this system, one field was left unplowed, one was cropped with winter grain, and one with spring rye (iare zhyto), oats (oves), wheat (pshenytsia) or barley (iachmin). The disadvantages of this system were that shallow plowing and generally insufficient tillage was conducted. Summer fallow land was often used for grazing since there was no pasture land available to farmers (hospodari).[68] In the Boiko region the two-field system was conducted up to the 1920s.[69]

By the turn of the century, crop rotation was generally practiced to some degree in Western Ukraine. In the Boiko region, fields were treated with manure then seeded with potatoes (bulba) one year and rye (zhyto) the next. The Lemkos followed another crop rotation system. In the first year they seeded potatoes, in the second, wheat, then barley (iachmin) and oats (oves). Another system practiced was to seed rye first, followed by clover (koniushnia), wheat and oats. Flax (lon) was

Figure 12: Sacking potatoes on the Hammond farm north of Edmonton, circa 1920. It was common to engage children in all kinds of gardening chores during the twenties. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. A7763.)

usually sown either after clover or on new land.[70]

(iv) Tillage and Cultivation

The process of tillage and cultivation is intended to prepare and improve soil for the purpose of crop production.[71] This process was conducted annually during the twenties on land intended to serve as a seed bed. Additional cultivation work was carried out on land left fallow for a season in order to reconstitute its fertility. Known as summer fallowing, this was a widespread practice conducted on farms throughout the prairie provinces.

The main components of tillage included plowing, disking, harrowing and packing, although each task was not always performed in this sequence. Plowing was done to uproot native vegetation, cover it and open furrows in the soil for seed beds. It was conducted both in the fall and spring, with the majority of plowing usually accomplished in spring. Fall plowing was often hampered by climatic conditions such as early frost, or excessively dry weather resulting in soil too dry for plowing.[72] Ideal soil conditions for plowing required that soil be neither too wet nor too dry. Thus, the state of spring plowing depended entirely on the condition of soil, and was often delayed until its condition was favourable.

In the semi-arid land of the southern prairies, tillage methods had to be specially adapted to suit soil conditions. The term "dry-farming" was coined by an American agriculturalist, Hardy Webster Campbell, during the 1890s, and it was during the last decades of the nineteenth century that dry-farming techniques evolved in Alberta.[73] Argus McKay and W. R. Motherwell, both of Saskatchewan, were early proponents of dry-farming methods in these early years. Essentially, farmers were encouraged to plow early in spring and deeply - five to seven inches. This was to be followed immediately by drag harrowing then plowing again should weeds appear. Fall plowing of stubble land was discouraged since snow was retained better on unplowed land. It was recommended to plow new soil shallowly by adjusting the plow to roll sod into a flat position. The soil was then replowed and backset six to eight weeks later. When turned

back to its original position the soil was partly decomposed and this served to aerate the soil and allow plant roots to penetrate to moisture in the sub-soil.

Other methods of plowing employed in these early dry-farming techniques involved the prior disking of soil, followed by plowing, packing, seeding and subsequent harrowing. A sub-surface packer compressed soil particles and encouraged the free flow of water to plant roots.[74]

Generally, it was desirable to leave an even surface when plowing so that the least possible surface area was exposed to the drying effects of wind and sun. Thus, deep furrows with high crowns were discouraged, particularly among dry-land farmers. Although it was not as crucial in areas enjoying more rainfall to till the soil with as much care as employed in arid regions, it was nonetheless important to plow in such a manner as to retain as much moisture as possible. The Salahubs, for example, plowed and disked land to a depth of six to seven inches to allow moisture to penetrate the soil.[75]

Plowing was almost always followed by drag harrowing, which was sometimes conducted a second time following seeding. Harrowing after seeding was not, however, carried out by any of the sample group.[76] The function of harrowing before seeding was to produce a level, uniform surface of soil and form a surface mulch that would prevent moisture evaporation. After seeding harrowing was conducted to destroy the small surface weeds that sprouted before grain heads appeared.[77]

Disking was conducted mainly on heavy, hard soils or in new land. Sometimes it was used to kill weeds on stubble land in order to leave land in good condition in the fall. Most of the sample group claimed to have disked only when and where land required it - something that varied from year to year. Bertha Stone, however, recalled disking regularly because of the clay-like soil of their farmland.[78]

As mentioned earlier, the principal means of reconstituting soil employed during the twenties was summer fallowing. Summer fallowing connoted a significant degree of cultivation, and this was achieved in a variety of ways. The implements of field cultivation included the plow,

Figure 13: A prairie farmer tills a stubble field, disking, seeding and packing in tandem by means of engine power, circa 1928. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. A7763.)

harrow, disk and cultivator. The cultivator, in particular, was quite popular during the mid-twenties. It was strong, light, and cleared land well. The use of these implements depended on the condition of soil.[79]

There were several means of summer fallow cultivation employed on the prairies during the 1920s. One of these involved no plowing but cultivating with a duck-foot cultivator to a depth of three to four inches, then repeating this task throughout the season at regular intervals. Another method was to plow in the fall, cultivate in the summer, then plow following harvest to a depth of four to five inches. Skim plowing was also conducted in the fall - land was plowed shallowly following harvest, then deep-plowed in summer and worked with a cultivator.[80] The most popular means of cultivating was to plow in June or early July and then cultivate as necessary. Manure was used widely, but chemical fertilizers were relatively unknown. The members of the sample group, for example, used manure only and summer fallowed by some variation of plowing, disking and harrowing land during the summer months.[81]

There were definite disadvantages to summer fallowing that gained increased attention during the twenties, but had little effect in discouraging its practice. The most obvious of these was that land was left idle for an entire season, bringing no returns yet expending much labour. Another shortcoming was that wheat grown on previously fallow land usually ripened later and was heavy with straw growth. This led to problems during harvesting with lodging of grain in machinery, mechanical complications and delays.[82] For these reasons, crop rotation with forage crops and excluding summer fallowing was highly advocated, if not practiced, by the mid-twenties.

A major objective of cultivation was to control the growth of weeds. Weeds and weed seeds were present on the soil surface of stubble fields in fall. If left unchecked, these annual, biennial and perennial plants would grow and propagate. Fall disking or cultivation destroyed annual and perennial weeds over the winter months, since weeds would germinate in fall, then perish following cultivation. Perennials were destroyed by repeated summer fallow cultivation.[83]

Although weeds could be controlled by these means, they were never completely eradicated. Wild oats seemed to have been the bane of farming life and farmers were encouraged to induce these weeds to germinate earlier so that they could be plowed under and destroyed before seeding. One method advocated was to shallow-plow in fall, harrow in early spring, and once the wild oats began to show, plow three to four inches deep and sow land with oats or barley for forage purposes.[84]

Other troublesome weeds included winter annuals such as shepherd's purse, stink-weed, tumbling mustard and false flax, and biennials such as blueweed and evening primrose.[85] To control stinkweed, farmers were advised to summer fallow every third year and to plow the fallow early, then to repeat plowing three to five times with a cultivator throughout the summer.[86] It should be noted that although various elaborate and less elaborate methods of weed control through cultivation were advocated during the mid-twenties, the Salahubs continued to summer fallow by disking and harrowing one to three times a season, depending on the amount of time Peter Salahub had to accomplish both this and other farm work. Fall plowing was initiated in most years, but only as much field was plowed as was possible before the frost.[87] This was usually not a substantial area of the land. In these regards, the Salahubs were hampered in having a one-man operation, since Peter did the vast majority of farm work alone.

In Ukraine, tilling and cultivating techniques were fairly primitive in nature at the turn of the century. Essentially, no individual methods were encouraged and most farmers (hospodari) adhered to the same system of farming.[88] The prevailing attitude among peasants was that they were, in effect, temporary users of the soil and such a short-term outlook greatly influenced their farming methods. Additionally, good quality land was distributed among the peasantry in scattered strips, so that the productivity of one's soil varied not among segments of one's own land, but between individual plots held by different farmers. This sometimes alienated hospodari from one another and hindered the evolution of farming methods among the peasantry.

Tillage conducted in Ukraine was basically insufficient to produce

Figure 14: Farmyards (hospodarski dvory) in Ukrainian ethnographic territory of eastern Slovakia. Note the small size of individual farmsteads, crowded buildings, and the village fields rising in the background. (Figure 14 in M. Sopoliga, Narodna Arkhitektura Ukraintsiv Skhidnoi Slovachchyny. Svydnyk: 1976.)

a well-prepared seed bed, while cultivation was equally inadequate and failed to restore fertility to soil. A major hindrance here lay in the use of crude implements to perform tillage and cultivation work. In some areas of Western Ukraine, for example, harrowing was conducted by hand through the use of a clump of brambles tied together (ternia) and dragged over sown fields. The wooden harrow (borona) was also used and was dragged either by horse or oxen.[89] Plowing was accomplished mainly through the use of wooden walking plows, while a variation of the plow (ralo) was used to cultivate land.[90] A type of packing device (valok) was used to pack soil after sowing and occasionally to harrow as well. One type of valok was equipped with a set of steel spikes, while the regular valok was made of a flat, heavy oak wood. Both were drawn by one or two horses.[91]

Weeding was rarely conducted on field crops, and performed with a simple hoe (sapa) when it was done. During the late nineteenth century, manure was rarely used in many parts of central Ukraine since it was believed to be harmful to soil.[92]

It is important to note that land was still being cleared and broken in Alberta during the 1920s. The Elaschuks, for example, did no summer fallow work. Rather, they spent their summers grubbing by hand to break plots of land on their farm throughout the twenties.[93] In fact, settlers throughout the prairies were grubbing by hand or with the aid of oxen and horses (and even tractors) well into that decade. Special scrub-breaking plows were available for this purpose, as well as brush cutters powered by tractors. The brush cutter consisted of a long knife which cut a four to six foot swath and sliced at the ground to uproot bush. Another means of clearing land was simply to burn out bush.[94]

Tilling newly broken land was a somewhat specialized task. It was best to plow following the first heavy rain of spring and to plow in such a manner that furrow crowns did not overlap. It was recommended to disk the same day, to a depth of three to five inches. For deeper disking, however, more drawing power was necessary, since virgin land was much harder to plow than previously cultivated land.[95]

(v) The Educated Farmer

J. S. Woodsworth in his work Studies in Rural Citizenship, published in 1916, decried the low level of farming practiced among prairie farmers. He cited a Manitoba farmer who, after more than 30 years of running his farm operation, had done nothing to improve his enterprise. He planted no trees, lived in an old house and his machinery was inadequately maintained. Woodsworth attributed this man's negligence not to financial difficulty but to the simple lack of care and attention.[96] He pointed to other farms where insufficient cultivation was conducted, poor crop rotation methods were entrenched, and land was infested with weeds. His criticisms of Alberta ranged from the poor water supply available on many farms, the rundown appearance of farm buildings and the poor maintenance of farm implements, to the generally careless and wasteful farming methods that were commonly employed. Woodsworth's formula for improving farming on a widescale basis was a three-pronged training program educating the farmer in the growing of products, the selling of these products, and in viewing agriculture as an industry and farmers as a class of people unto themselves.

Woodsworth's concerns are noteworthy since they preceded what was to become a valuable dimension of farm life on the prairies in later years. As early as 1917, there was a clear emphasis on scientific farming which was to be voiced in agricultural publications of every nature during the subsequent decade The federal and provincial governments were determined to improve the quality of farming in this country and consequently established experimental farms and agricultural colleges during the 1910s. Travelling experts and "better farming trains" travelled across the prairies demonstrating and encouraging mixed farming and other advances in farming methodology. Agricultural colleges offered regular and short-term courses in farming, as well as extension work and correspondence courses in scientific farming.[97]

In all of these progressive measures the onus fell on the individual farmer to avail himself of these services and to implement the programs in question. However, not all farmers were equally aware of these resources, and it is difficult to determine why. There does seem

to be a definite corelation between those farmers who either dealt directly with (or at least knew of) experimental farms and were up-to-date on advanced farming techinques through their reading of government publications and agricultural journals, and prosperous farming with successful returns. A strong case in point is that of the Strange family who farmed in the Fenn area during the twenties. The Strange's conducted a large-scale mixed farm operation, which they converted to a wheat seed operation during the early twenties and later extended into poultry raising.[98] As mentioned earlier, they implemented several advanced theories of seed growing on their operation and experienced tremendous success in their venture.[99] Remarkably, both husband and wife had never farmed previously and essentially gained their entire farming education partly from the example of neighbours but mainly from their own consumption of printed material on the subject.[100] It is important to note, however, that both of these people were of British origin and had received a substantial education in their homeland before emigrating to Canada. They were both, without doubt, predisposed to learning and advancing themselves through education as a result of their previous schooling.

Of the sample group, both the Batemans and Stones read agricultural journals regularly, and the Batemans implemented their findings in a constructive manner (see Appendix B: Land Cultivation Matrix). Whereas, the Salahubs and Slemkos occasionally read Ukrainian language journals, both Peter Salahub and Vasyl Slemko seemed certain that new farming techniques were never employed as a result of these readings. The Elaschuk family, on the other hand, never read these materials as Tanasko Elaschuk (the father) was illiterate and the others were not interested. Significantly, of the sample group it is the Elaschuks who, for example, did not practice summer fallowing because they were not convinced of its benefits. All of the sample group, however, claimed not to have heard of experimental farms existing during the 1920s. They all believed that these farms only started functioning during the thirties and forties.[101]

Self-enlightenment held an important place in the collective mind of Ukrainian settlers. Even though the Salahubs and Slemkos did not

implement farming theories discussed in Ukrainian-language agricultural journals such as Kanadiiskyi Farmer, Ukrainskyi Holos and Farmerske Zhyttia (see Appendix F for samples of farming advertisements and related matters appearing in these journals during the 1920s), they were aware of their existence and possibly were influenced by them at some level. The Salahubs were, for instance, members of the Alberta Wheat Pool, as were the Slemkos, and the pool was widely discussed in the Ukrainian-Canadian press of the twenties. Woodsworth's study of Ukrainian rural communities documents homes in the Mundare, Chipman and Lamont areas as subscribing to several Ukrainian-language journals, the titles of which included Kanadiisky Rusyn, Postup, Ranok, Ameryka, Kanadiiskyi Farmer, and Ukrainskyi Holos.[102]

Articles dealing with agricultural matters were abundant in certain Ukrainian-language journals throughout the twenties. Generally, these articles mirrored those printed in prominent English-language journals, such as the Farmer's Advocate and Home Magazine, Grain Grower's Guide, Farm and Ranch Review, The Nor'West Farmer, Alberta Farm Journal and Agricultural Alberta (see Appendix F for samples of advertisements and related matters printed in these journals during the twenties). Articles pertaining to grain growing,[103] machinery maintenance,[104] forage crops,[105] tillage and cultivation,[106] and many other agricultural subjects appeared continually in both the English and Ukrainian-language press read by prairie farmers.

Some mention should be made of government publications which were intended to lure prospective settlers to the west throughout the twenties. These were mainly instructional pamphlets and guides designed to inform and assist farmers in organizing a farming enterprise on the prairies. Some of them (Own a Selected Farm... is an example of this) were almost propagandistic in nature, underscoring the benefits of prairie farming and ignoring the drawbacks.[107]

Finally, a number of Ukrainian-language manuals and almanacs dealing with agricultural practices were published during the 1920s. Although these works contained much noteworthy material on farming, such as grain growing, forage crops, and horse breeding, as well as advice to

new immigrants,[108] they seemed to have little impact on Ukrainian farmers in east central Alberta. None of the sample group was aware of the content of these publications, although Peter Salahub claimed to have seen one or another "lying around the house" on occasion.[109] These publications were available during the twenties and may have generated interest among certain Ukrainian farmers, but the Salahub family, it seems, was not among them.

B. Crop Production

(i) General Introduction

In preparing a comprehensive outline of the crop production cycle employed by the Salahubs, as well as on farms throughout east central Alberta and the prairies as whole, there are several elements to bear in mind. The obvious distinctions in work are afforded by the seasons themselves: spring, summer, fall and winter. However, there are a number of factors of equal consequence that cannot be categorized under any seasonal heading. These include the role of the weather and insect infestations in determining crop failure, irrigation methods, the presence of hired hands on farms, as well as general features of the farm profile.

The farm profile is a convenient starting point for such a discussion. There was a salient increase in average prairie farm size throughout the first decades of this century. By 1921, the size of farms measuring more than 200 acres had increased 88 percent since 1911. In Alberta the majority (54.4 percent) of farms in 1921 were more than 200 acres in size, as they were in Saskatchewan (67.5 percent). Some 46.6 percent of Manitoba farms were more than 200 acres in size in this same year.[1] Farms increased in size as farmers gained prosperity and upgraded their farm operations. Three of the five families of the sample group worked farms that comprised a one-half section (320 acres). Yet according to one informant, many Ukrainian farmers in the Smoky Lake region still farmed only one quarter section (160 acres) during the twenties.[2] The Salahubs were an exception in this regard, since they

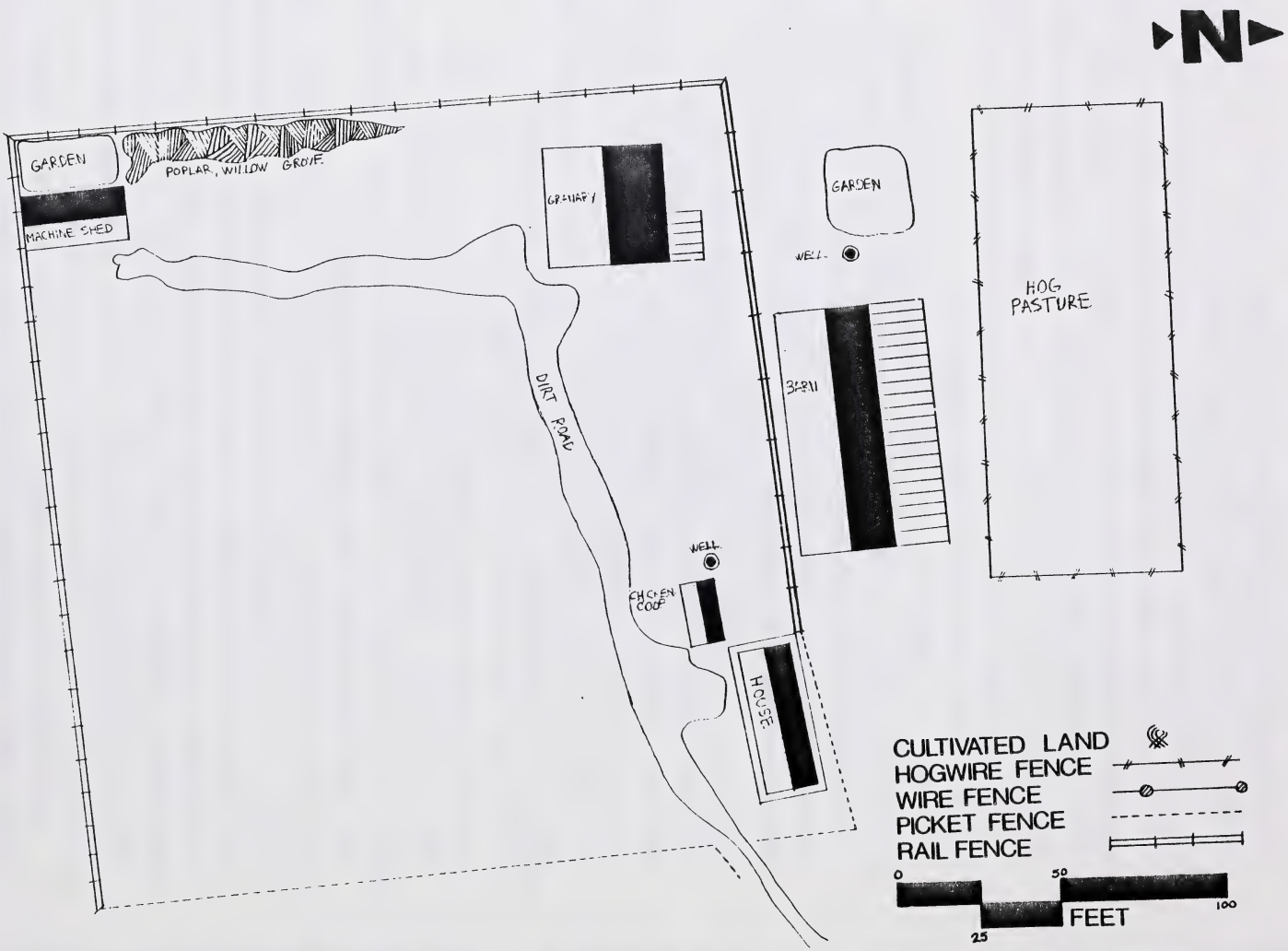
worked two quarter sections during these years. However, it is important to bear in mind that both quarters were rented.

Rented farms in the Smoky Lake area were a definite minority by 1930. Only 4.8 percent of farms were wholly rented, while 89.1 percent were owned and 5.9 percent were partially rented.[3] As mentioned earlier, the fact that the Salahubs were merely tenants was an active determining factor in their farm operation. Peter Salahub clearly stated that the ultimate decisions on the farm were not his own, or even his family's, but rather that of the landlord.[4]

As J.S. Woodsworth points out in Studies in Rural Citizenship, rented farms generally showed less care and upkeep than farms worked by their owners.[5] Although the Salahubs seem to have run a well-kept farm (Peter claims to have spent many hours in general upkeep, such as fence and post mending, whitewashing, and so on) they were not fastidious farmers. One reason for this was that Gregorii's state of health forced him to place the burden of responsibility on his teenaged son's shoulders. Peter performed his tasks well, but seems to have resented the fact that he was almost exclusively responsible for all the farm field work.[6] He did not show the same enterprising nature as did Vasyl Slemko of the sample group, for instance. Vasyl and Peter were approximately the same age in 1925, but Vasyl's family owned the one-quarter section farm he worked on. Vasyl's overriding desire was to own his own farm, and he earned enough money to purchase his own machinery. Consequently, the family had two plows, disks and binders at their disposal, and farm work progressed rapidly.[7]

Nor did the Salahubs' operation measure up to the standards set by a farmer like W. R. Motherwell of southern Saskatchewan. Motherwell's farm, the Lanark Place, had a showplace reputation during the twenties and Motherwell, a leading proponent of dry-farming techniques, was said to be overly "fastidious, almost fanatical" about the appearance of the farm. His approach to farming was so stringent as to be "dictatorial," according to one source.[8]

In Western Ukraine, farming was conducted for personal sustenance and the farms themselves were small and largely dispersed. Land in the


N
GARDEN
POPLAR, WILLOW GROVE
MACHINE SHED
GRANARY
GARDEN
WELL
HOG PASTURE
BARN
DIRT ROAD
WELL
CHICKEN COOP
HOUSE
CULTIVATED LAND
HOGWIRE FENCE
WIRE FENCE
PICKET FENCE
RAIL FENCE
0
50
100
25
FEET
SCALE 1 : 478.8

Lemko region was divided into whole, one-half, one-third, one-fourth and smaller segments. A whole segment of land consisted of a long, wide field measuring 32 morgs and usually covered meadow (sinozhaty), pasture (pasovyshche) and some forest (lis) limiting the cultivatible area. The smallest segments of land were termed vertannia or skladenets and were used solely for wheat (pshenytsia) or rye (zhyto). Some of these smaller divisions of land came about as a direct result of court divisions arising out of debt bankruptcy.[9]

In discussing farming practices there is perhaps no greater determining factor than the weather. It is an external factor, one over which no farmer has control but one which, in the words of one prairie farmer, "controlled [their] lives."[10] The most destructive aspect of bad weather at the wrong time of year was its impact on crop production. Table 4 demonstrates the injurious effects of natural forces on crops, as recorded in the 1931 census.[11]

Table 4: Acreages of crop failure by causes of failure in Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba, 1930.

Cause	Alberta	Saskatchewan	Manitoba
Drought	575,383	1,918,585	87,663
Hail	1,011,824	909,733	86,593
Wind	220,519	481,684	27,463
Frost	21,757	23,272	2,603
Excessive Rain	4,385	4,385	6,087
Insects	30,987	121,165	3,702
Rust	171	72,156	22,670
Plant diseases	198	1,153	617
Other	8,415	26,423	9,710

As shown, the greatest natural cause of crop failure was drought, followed by hail. Wind, frost and excessive rain also contributed to crop failure in great measure. The greatest acreage on the prairies was

lost in wheat in 1930 (1,342,752 in Alberta, 2,351,087 in Saskatchewan, and 76,860 in Manitoba), and the next largest to oats (1,238,518 total acres). The remaining acreage of crop failure was divided fairly evenly among the other field crops.[12]

When farmers speak of farming, they invariably make frequent references to the weather. A farming retrospective, Remembering the Farm, devotes an entire chapter to individual farmers' recollections of disastrous weather changes during the twenties and thirties, such as sandstorms in Derwent, a cyclone in Drumheller, recurring August frost in Peace River, hail in Viscount (Saskatchewan) and drought in Lariviere (Manitoba).[13]

Crops were also destroyed by other natural causes, such as insects, rust and other diseases (see Table 4).[14] The greatest devastation was wrought by insects, which accounted for a total of 155,854 acres of failed crops in the prairie provinces in 1930. The gravity of the insect problem is reflected in the fact that machinery to combat them was patented during the 1920s. One such machine was a grasshopper destroyer, which crushed these insects between rapidly revolving rollers.[15]

Another means of compensating for natural causes of crop failure was irrigation, which was practiced in drought ridden areas, particularly on the southern prairies. Farming under irrigation made farming operations more intensive, and certainly more costly, but it compensated for insufficient moisture conditions and controlled soil-driftng. Thus, it played a great role in the maintenance of soil fertility.[16] By the 1920s, irrigation had proven to be both successful and profitable in southern Alberta (see Table 5).[17]

Table 5 shows the highest increase in irrigated crop production to have been in potato raising, followed by barley, wheat, oats and peas. Although irrigation was used extensively in southern Alberta, it was not needed in the east central part of the province. None of the sample group or their neighbours used irrigation methods during the 1920s.[18]

Table 5: Comparative results in yields per acre in crops grown on dry and irrigated land at an experimental farm in Lethbridge, 1908-1918.

Year	Wheat (Marquis)		Oats (Banner)		Barley (Sweet Chevalier)		Peas (All Varieties)		Potato (Irish Cobbler)	
	Dry Bu.	Irr. Bu.	Dry Bu.	Irr. Bu.	Dry Bu.	Irr. Bu.	Dry Bu.	Irr. Bu.	Dry Bu.	Irr. Bu.
1908	29	43	80	88	55	61	19	19	92	235
1909	31	40	56	77	44	69	19	19	159	605
1910	11	23	21	68	12	54	12	33	103	521
1911	Hailed		Hailed		Hailed		23	39	356	508
1912	28	50	77	145	41	77	31	62	296	501
1913	25	52	73	115	50	93	41	42	195	483
1914	24	54	49	113	25	90	19	52	400	495
1915	63	94	143	81	86	80	53	50	283	447
1916	48	71	118	157	64	79	46	37	475	530
1917	28	48	66	128	40	82	23	48	157	465
1918	14	62	24	104	17	91	16	48	93	505
Average 11 years	30	53	70	108	43	78	27	41	237	487
Increase due to irrigation (bushels)	23		38		35		14		250	
Increase due to irrigation (percent)	77		54		81		51		105	

The last point of interest to touch upon before examining the actual crop production cycle is that of hired labour. It is interesting to note that the Ukrainian farmers of the sample group - Salahubs, Slemkos, and Elaschuks - hired no outside labour at any time during the twenties. They all ran family operations, and exchanged labour with neighbours during work-intensive periods such as threshing. This was a well-entrenched custom among Ukrainian farmers and was even encouraged in the Ukrainian-language press.[19]

Interestingly, both Clara Bateman and Bertha Stone recall hired help on the farm, especially during harvest, although they also mention labour exchange among neighbours as being common. They also thought that most of their neighbours used hired help at one time or another, whereas the Ukrainian farmers thought that none of their neighbours hired help during the twenties.[20] It appears that Ukrainian farmers banded together as a more closely-knit community - in fact, a community within a community. Their bonds were closer, and their finances were probably more limited. Certainly, the Salahubs' primary goal was to save money and expand into their own enterprise. The Elaschuks, on the other hand, would eventually expand their farm operation to include additional quarter sections of rented land.

Nonetheless, the hired hand was clearly in evidence throughout the twenties. Most extra help was hired during the haying and harvesting season and entire crews for hire were not uncommon.[21] As Ingles points out, professional crews were particularly common in the southern dry-land areas in these years, since individual farmers were proportionally low in this part of the country in comparison to the amount of work to be done. Many of these men came from eastern Canada and the United States to work on a seasonal basis and earn additional funds for their own farming enterprises back home.[22]

(ii) Spring

The field work tasks associated with crop production conducted during spring encompassed the different facets of land tillage. These included plowing, disking, harrowing, seeding and packing. As with all

farm work, the timing of tasks conducted during spring was largely dependent on weather conditions. Farmers had to wait until the soil was dry enough for tillage, and this factor determined whether they would have an "early" or "late" spring. It is important to note that in farming standards the conventional demarcation of the seasons was medicated by weather conditions. Thus, spring was not considered as beginning on March 21 in each year, but rather at that time when land was ready for plowing. Similarly, summer did not end in mid-September, but with the end of harvest.[23]

Like most farmers, Peter Salahub made an effort each year to begin plowing (orania) as early as possible. Although the actual starting date varied from year to year, according to the weather, Peter was usually plowing for wheat in the first week of May. He used a two-bottom gang plow (dubeltovyi pluh) which was drawn by four horses, and averaged about six acres per day. Peter would plow a given plot of land, usually about 20-25 acres, then would conduct other tillage tasks on this plot - harrowing, seeding and packing - before proceeding to other plots. Thus an entire area would be tilled, seeded and packed before the plowing was resumed. It generally took three to five good days of labour to put the entire farm under seed. This included 175 acres of wheat and 45 acres of rye on both SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17. This work was also affected by weather changes. In rainy weather, work was delayed or postponed and sometimes three to five days of labour were stretched out over a two-week period.[24]

The method of work described above was standard practice among prairie farmers. All of the sample group plowed in segments, completing all tillage and seeding work in one area before moving on to the next. Vasyl Slemko worked 140 acres of crop land together with his father. He recalls beginning to plow as early as the third week of April, although this was considered a very "early spring." As the Slemkos owned two sets of plows, both Vasyl and his father worked simultaneously in different areas of the farm. As a result, they were able to plow about 14 acres daily.[25] The Elaschuks, on the other hand, had only 65 cleared acres on their farm during the mid-twenties. They would plow about 10 acres in

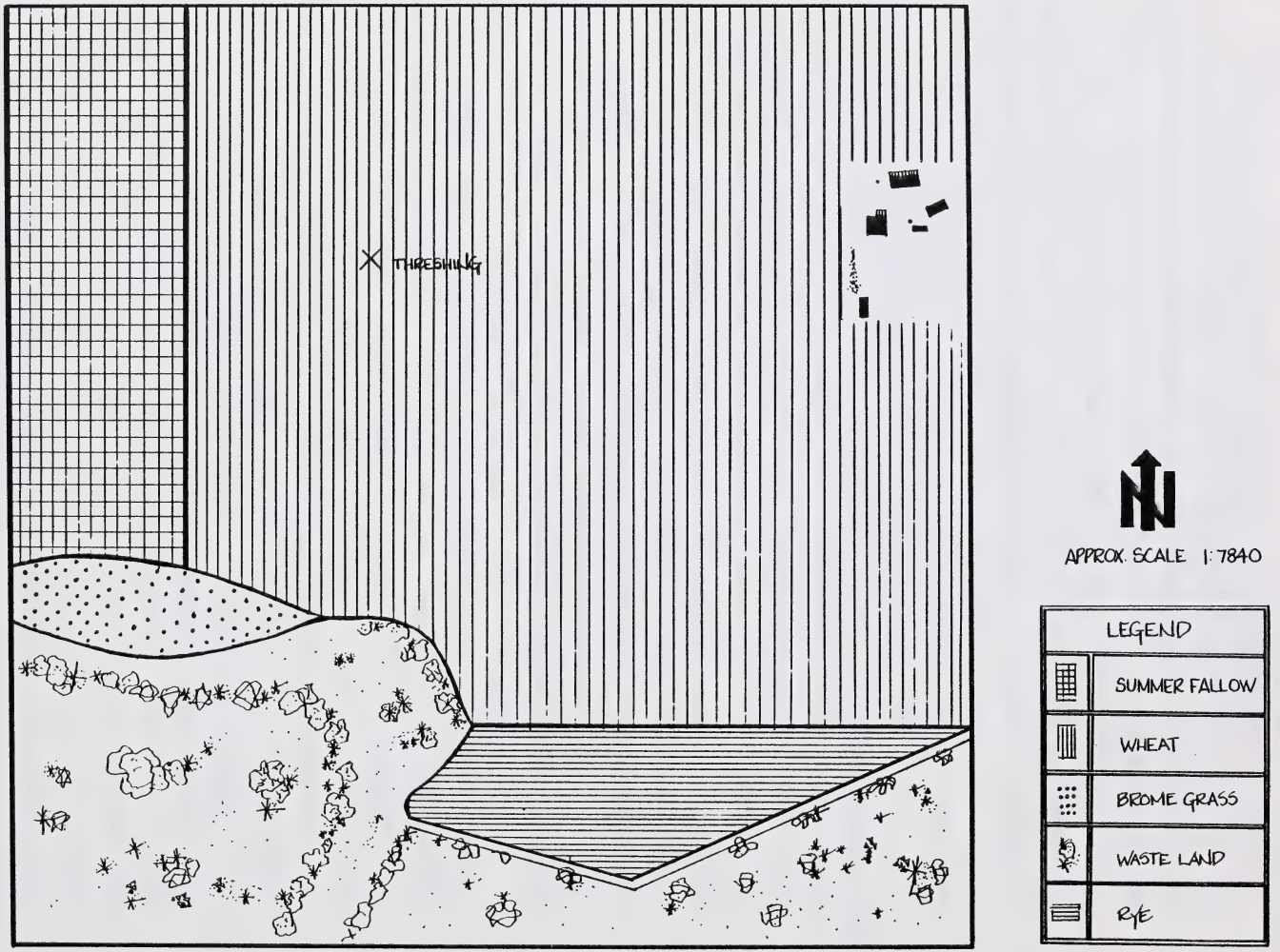


Figure 16: Land use employed on SE33-59-17 by the Salahubs, circa 1925. "X" indicates the area in which threshing was usually conducted from year to year. The majority of land was in wheat, with

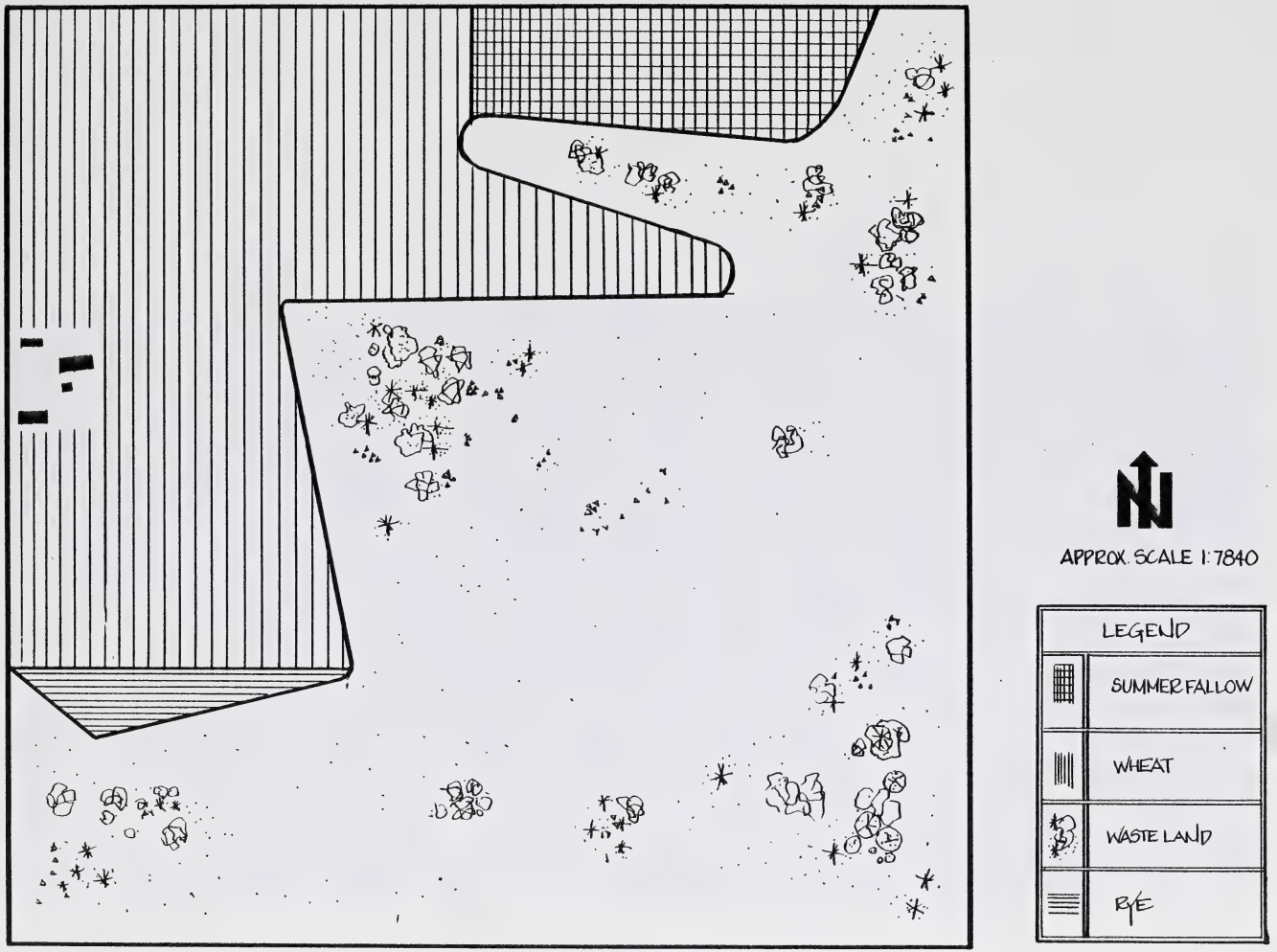


Figure 17: Land use employed on SW34-59-17 by the Salahubs, circa 1925. There was little arable land on this quarter, the majority of which was in wheat with a small segment in rye. Summer fallow was done in strips when and where was needed. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

one area, perform other tillage tasks, and then move on to the next plot of land.[26] (For additional comparisons see Appendix B: Crop Production Matrix).

Plowing in Western Ukraine was also dependent on weather conditions, although most regions enjoyed an earlier spring than western Canada. The Boiko region experienced early winters and short, cold summers; factors that hampered crop production and tillage work. Plowing was mainly accomplished through the use of walking plows (pluhy), drawn by a single horse or ox, and occasionally by hand power alone. Poorer peasants were forced to share their draft animals (supriaha).[27] In the Lemko region, plowing was conducted in long furrows which stretched the length of a field, creating some 80-120 furrows (borozny). There were about six to eight such fields (zahony) in one morg and were worked by various farmers (hospodari).[28] It is noteworthy that several folk rituals and customs accompanied every facet of agricultural work in Ukraine. Special names were given to the different aspects of the work. For example, the start of plowing was known as zaoriuvania, the first furrow was termed persha skyba, and various rituals were conducted around the actual field work itself to ensure moisture retention and fertility of the soil. The Salahubs, however, retained none of these customs in their farming practices.

Some Ukrainian farmers were hampered by these traditional methods in their farming practice on the prairies. An article advising farmers to abandon traditional Galician methods of farming, criticized the Galician practice of creating narrow furrows, claiming that it was unsuitable for the drier Prairie soil. Wider furrows were advocated for prairie farmers.[29]

Disking plowed land was not necessary on all farms, or even on all fields of an individual farm. Disking was conducted mainly on new soil in breaking land, or on a stubble field in summer fallowing or fall cultivation. However, some soils required the added benefit of disking as a component of regular tillage work.[30] The Salahubs disked (dyskuvaly) mainly during summer fallow work, and occasionally in the fall for cultivation. Occasionally, however, disking was conducted after plowing in the spring to break up soil that was exceptionally

Figure 18: A farmer plows a stubble field by means of an engine-powered three-bottom plow, circa 1922. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. A7764.)

hardened.[31] Peter did the actual disking work, using a 12-plate disk (dysky) with double levers that adjusted the disk to a certain angle. It was this angle that determined the depth to which the disk plates would penetrate the ground. The disk plates on this machine were set at an out-throw angle. Two levers regulated the degree of angle set by the press handles. Pressing on the handles drew the disks out to a greater angle.[32]

Four horses drew the Salahubs' disk, and Peter estimates that he was able to disk about 10 acres per day. The Elaschuks, who worked with a smaller implement using four horses, were only able to disk about seven acres per day. The Slemkos worked with two sets of disk harrows, drawn by four horses each, and were able to disk 12-16 acres per day.[33] The acreage worked in a single day depended greatly on the condition of machinery and the strength of the horses. These topics will be elaborated on in later sections.

Although most of the sample group claim to have disked in the manner followed by the Salahubs - only occasionally in spring and only in those segments of field that required it - Bertha Stone recalled disking after spring plowing on a regular basis. The soil on the Stone farm was exceptionally hard and clay-like, and required this extra expenditure of labour each new season.[34]

Harrowing usually followed directly after plowing. Occasionally, for reasons cited above, it followed disking as a third phase of spring tillage work. Harrowing was done in order to prepare a fine, smooth seed-bed for grain. It loosened soil, allowing it to aerate. It also killed weeds, made a soil mulch and stirred surface soil in order to facilitate absorption of rainfall. Its weed-killing function was especially beneficial to soil, and for this reason it was often conducted both before and after seeding. Harrowing left the soil with a uniform surface, as it smoothed out the furrows and rough spots created by other tillage methods. The most popular harrow used during the 1920s on the prairies was the drag harrow, which consisted of framed sections of teeth or spikes that stirred the soil as they were dragged over it.[35]

The Salahubs used a diamond-shaped harrow (borona), and owned four

sections which hooked together and attached to a wood bar. The angle of this harrow's spikes were adjustable for depth of penetration. The harrow was drawn by three horses and operated by Peter (volochyv), who rode behind the sections on an attached harrow cart (kolishnytsia). Not all farmers were able to afford harrow carts and those who could not simply walked behind the implement. The harrow was sometimes attached at the rear of the plow and both implements were drawn by four horses. This was not practiced regularly since it placed an added strain on the horses. It was usually reserved for "late spring" seasons in order to speed tillage work. Under normal conditions, three horses could draw the Salahubs' harrow some 20-30 acres per day.[36]

Harrowing in Western Ukraine was conducted by means of a handmade wooden harrow (borona) with stationary steel spikes. Hospodari harrowed (boronuvaly, volochyly) before and after seeding.[37] Harrowing prior to seeding broke up the soil, while harrowing after seeding was done to compact soil and depress soil particles onto the seed grain. Generally, horses or other draft animals, such as oxen and even cattle, were used for harrowing. Disking was not done in Ukraine at all, since disks did not come into use until a much later period. Tillage consisted solely of plowing and harrowing land.

None of the sample group harrowed after seeding, preferring merely to pack soil at this time. However, the practice was quite common on farms and, moreover, was encouraged in agricultural journals. Harrowing after seeding had a dual purpose: first, to ensure that seed was adequately covered by soil and, second, to kill small weeds that would appear on the soil's surface after seeding.[38] The latter practice was known as harrowing a growing crop, and was prevalent during the twenties. As mentioned, its object was to destroy weeds and, additionally, to break down the surface soil crust in order to prevent moisture evaporation. A properly prepared seed bed and root bed rendered the latter objective unnecessary since soil was already adequately prepared to nurture seed growth.[39]

Harrowing after seeding in order to kill weeds, however, was considered vital by many farmers. The stroke of a drag harrow at an

opportune time killed myriads of shallow-rooted weeds, and did so with little damage to the growing crop. Its long-term benefits were great. Pigweed, mustard weed and other weed species that plagued prairie farms were efficiently uprooted and effectively destroyed in this manner. Harrowing in this manner was recommended once the grain was about one-inch high, to be repeated once the grain had grown to a height of five or six inches.[40]

All tillage work was, in fact, an elaborate means of preparing the ground for seeding. Spring was generally a very busy time on prairie farms. It was a time of great exertion and activity, with early risings and long days. The weather was a more important factor at this time of year than at any other.[41] Rain caused delays in tillage work and in seeding, but once the ground was prepared for seed it was essential to conclude seeding as quickly as possible so as not to diminish the benefits of good tillage.

As mentioned earlier, seed was cleaned and treated before being sown. As seeding was ideally done as soon as the soil was dry enough in spring, the cleaning and treating of seed had to be completed by early spring. An average date for starting to seed in southern Alberta during the 1920s was 9 April.[42] This was considered very early in east central Alberta, where seeding during the third week of April was considered early. Seeding in the Smoky Lake region was done during the first weeks of May, contingent on the weather conditions of the season.[43]

Wheat was sown with seed drills measuring eight to twelve feet in width and usually drawn by four horses. These drills forced the seeds into the ground through chutes and took the shape of shoes, hoes, and disks. Their effectiveness depended on soil conditions. Seed was forced into the ground in rows spaced approximately six inches apart, to a depth of two to three inches below the soil surface. The depth of seeding varied according to the character of soil. Where soil was light and dry, seeding was done to a deeper level than those areas where soil was heavy and moist. An average depth was two and one-half inches. The depth of seeding was regulated mechanically, as was the amount of seed distributed

Figure 19: Seeding near Brandon, Manitoba by means of a disk drill drawn by four horses, circa 1922. Note the finely pulverized, smooth soil surface, achieved prior to seeding by harrowing, and possibly packing, soil. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P621.)

per acre. An average rate of seed distribution was 75-90 pounds or one and one-quarter to one and one-half bushels per acre. Newly broken soil, or summer fallowed soil, required little seed - 105 pounds or one and three-quarter bushels per acre. On the southern prairies, seeding was usually completed between mid-April and the second week of May.[44]

The Salahubs cleaned their seed with a fanning mill (mlyna) and treated it with a formalin (formalina) mixture before seeding. This work was done in the granary, and was completed well before seeding time. They usually began seeding during May, completing all seeding work by 20 May. Since an individual plot of land was completely tilled and seeded before similar work was commenced on an adjacent plot, seeding was spread out over a period of days. Peter Salahub did the seeding work (siiania), using a shoe drill with 14 runs pulled by three horses. He usually drilled 14-15 acres per day, and averaged one and one-half to two bushels of seed per acre.[45]

The amount of seed used per acre depended on the seed type. For instance, Red Fife seed was a fairly hardy variant and required no more than two bushels to the acre. Garnet, on the other hand, was a finer seed but longer in shape and, consequently, less was needed to sow an acre - about one and three-quarters of a bushel.[46] Peter usually used Marquis and Red Fife seed during one season, sowing one half of his wheat acreage with one and one half with the other. He had a no specific reason for using both brands, stating only that most farmers did this. One reason may have been that seed was often purchased from a variety of local farmers if one's own seed proved unsuitable for growing purposes. The Salahubs used their own seed in some years, but often bought seed from neighbours and other farmers, thus obtaining a mixture of seed type.[47]

The shoe drill was usually reserved for heavier, rocky soils.[48] The soil of SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17 was not rocky but it had been relatively new soil during the mid-teens when this particular implement was purchased by Kosma Chernochan. According to one informant, most farmers in the Smoky Lake region during the twenties used shoe drills, many of which dated from the previous decade when the land had only

been seeded a few times.[49] The double-disk drill was considered to be best for well prepared soil, and enjoyed much popularity on the prairies during the twenties. Seed drills placed seed into the soil at a depth where it could receive moisture, heat and light for growth. The Salahubs seeded to a depth of three inches.[50]

Seeding was also done in fall for winter wheat and rye. However, this practice enjoyed little popularity in Alberta, since harsh climatic conditions precluded the chances of successful harvest. Where it was done, usually on pockets of land in the southern prairies, it followed harvest and threshing and was completed before the first frosts of winter.[51]

In Western Ukraine, winter wheat (pshenytsia) and rye (zhyto) were seeded, although the emphasis there was also on spring seeding (siiania). Since only small plots of land were sown at any given time, seeding was done by hand from a sack (sivaka), straw basket, wooden pail or box (see Figure 20). Some horse-drawn seeders (sivalky) were used during the late 1890s, but their use was by no means widespread.[52]

Certain ritual beliefs surrounded the seeding process in the Lemko region. It was considered bad luck to lend anything from the household on the day of sowing, and hazardous to clean around animals in the barn that day. Several fertility rituals pertaining to the sowing of oats (oves), the most important crop, were also observed. For example, before setting out to the field the senior family matron circled the draw-cart three times, carrying a loaf of bread under her arm and a vessel of water in her left hand. With her right hand she sprinkled holy water on the draft animals and placed the bread before them. Once in the field, the hospodar placed an egg into the first furrow as an added gesture to ensure a healthy crop.[53]

The final stage in preparing the seed bed was conducted after seeding, and was known as packing. Packing was done by a modified form of ridged roller or flat board, either purchased commercially or of domestic fashion. By means of these implements, soil was packed below the surface and left in a ridged condition. Packing was done after seeding in order to bring seed into closer contact with soil, and thereby

Figure 20: A farmer (hospodar) seeds by hand using a box-like container (sivaka) in this nineteenth century Ukrainian scene. (Ukraine: A Concise Encyclopedia, 1971 ed. S.v. "Agricultural Development in Central and Eastern Ukraine from the early Nineteenth Century to 1914," by C. Kononenko, V. Kubijovyc, G. Makhiv.)

with moisture. Agriculturalists of the twenties recommended following packing with additional harrowing, and even to pack following plowing.[54] Neither of these practices, however, was conducted by the sample group, and both were considered excessive by many farmers.[55]

Since the purchase of a commercial packer was considered prohibitive by some farmers, many packers were homemade. The Slemkos, for example, fashioned a packer from a 14-foot log covered with chains. It was dragged by two horses and could cover 20-30 acres per day. The Elaschuks used a simple, heavy log to pack land, covering about 25 acres per day. The Batemans owned a drum packer, which was large and heavy and drawn by five or six horses, while the Stones used a planker (a flat board packer) in combination with harrows to pack land. The Salahubs also used a smooth drum packer (valok) which they borrowed or rented from neighbours. It consisted of a huge barrel, about four feet in length, mounted on a frame. Using two horses, Peter was able to pack (pakuvaty) about 40-60 acres a day.[56]

(iii) Summer

Following the hectic spring weeks of tillage and seeding a temporary lull occurred in farm life. This lull was usually shortlived, for very soon the summer work began and would last through to the end of harvest. The three main jobs accomplished in the summer months during the twenties were summer fallowing, haying and harvest.

Although alternatives to summer fallowing were being advocated by agricultural specialists during the 1920s, most farmers still employed the practice regularly.[57] In essence, summer fallow land was that portion of cropland which was left uncropped for a season. Soil on this portion was cultivated in various manners, for purposes of storing moisture, reconstituting soil nutrients, and killing parasitical weeds.[58] Various implements were used to perform summer fallow work: plow, disk, harrow and, increasingly during the twenties, the cultivator. There were three types of cultivators widely in use at this time: the wide-blade, duck foot; the narrow blade; and the disk harrow and cultivator. The wide-blade, duck foot was the most useful of these

implements on western Canadian farms and was highly popular among farmers. It was especially efficient in cutting weeds below the soil's surface. The narrow blade cultivator was primarily used to loosen hardened soil, while the disk harrow and cultivator was used on stubble land. Running these implements over land at right angles to the usual direction of plowing was recommended. In this manner, weeds locked into furrows could be uprooted and destroyed more effectively. Deep cultivation during summer fallowing was not advised since excessive opening of furrows was not beneficial.[59]

Another means of killing weeds during summer fallowing was through double-disking. The double disk was an implement comprised of two sets of disks running in tandem over the land. Although it was used in Alberta during the twenties, none of the sample group owned one, and each felt that owning a double disk was something of a luxury in those days.[60]

The fact that summer fallowing was still very popular among prairie farmers during this decade is underscored in Kathleen Strange's autobiographical work, With the West in Her Eyes. Strange describes summer fallow work during the twenties as any portion of land lying fallow in one year in readiness for the next season's crop. She states that most western Canadian farmers performed summer fallowing every second or third year in order to store up moisture and retain more than one year's rainfall for a year's crop. The basic procedure was to deep-plow the land, and disk to prevent weed growth. Each individual weed acted like a tiny pump to drain the land of vital moisture, and had to be uprooted.[61]

The procedure for summer fallowing described by Strange was conducted in a variety of forms by east central Alberta farmers. The prevalent attitude among these farmers was to summer fallow "as needed." Peter Salahub claimed that his decision to summer fallow was always made during threshing time. It was at this time that the results of the grain crop were most evident. If he found that large quantities of buckwheat, wild oats and other weeds were mixed in with the threshed grain, he knew that summer fallowing (paranyna) was needed in a certain part of the

farm. Peter claims to have summer fallowed some land every year the family farmed SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17. His method was to leave a long strip of land in summer fallow - the amount of land depending on the condition of land itself. Some years this was only 20 acres, while in other years it was 50-60 acres (see Figures 16 and 17 for an example of portions of land left to summer fallow).[62]

Peter's method of summer fallowing was to first plow the entire segment of land and then to harrow it. After this work he allowed the land to lie untouched for a few days, then he would disk and harrow it. He would repeat the disking and harrowing at least once before fall, and more often if time permitted. In the spring, summer fallow land was disked again and seeded. Although this was his usual method, Peter claims to have diverged from it on occasion. In some years he only disked once and would repeat only the harrowing work in the next few weeks. In other years he would disk the land as often as he could before fall. His policy was to work the land as much as was needed, and this need fluctuated from year to year and from land segment to land segment. His main criteria for the frequency of disking or harrowing was the extent of weed growth in an area. Although weeds were destroyed upon disking and harrowing, they usually reappeared. The land then required additional cultivation. Peter's goal was to eradicate weed growth in an area of land to the greatest extent possible. In fact, this was his main objective in summer fallowing. His emphasis was on weed control, not soil reconstitution. Again, the fact that the Salahubs rented and did not own this land was a major factor in his approach. It seems obvious that Peter did not feel a long-term commitment toward preserving the quality of soil on the farm, and was basically concerned with producing a bountiful crop from year to year. He practiced short-term measures in ensuring this goal - for example, summer fallowing only weed-infested land.

During most years, summer fallow land on the Salahub farm was treated with manure (hnii). The barn manure which had collected over the winter months was taken from the barn in wheelbarrows. It was spread over fallow land with hand forks (vylky). Peter was aware of manure

spreaders being used in the Smoky Lake region during the twenties, but claims that they were not at all common during this period.[63]

Summer fallowing was quite common in the Smoky Lake farming region during the twenties. Although the Elaschuks did not summer fallow, the Slemko family did, and both Peter Salahub and Vasyl Slemko claim the practice was widespread.[64] Vasyl Slemko summer fallowed by first disking the land, waiting until weeds had grown up above the soil's surface, and then plowing them under. He would wait approximately two weeks before disking again. Another waiting period of a few weeks followed before Vasyl would disk the land for a third time, this time criss-crossing the land and essentially disking it twice. His policy was to disk at least three times in one season.

Land that was left fallow during the summer was not cultivated in central Ukraine at the turn of the century. As mentioned earlier, this land was used instead for grazing land. In Western Ukraine, the three-field fallowing system was replaced during the mid-nineteenth century with a crop rotation system which was inconsistent and largely ineffective.[65]

In addition to land cultivation work, haying was done during the summer period. Haying was the hottest and most tiresome work on farms during the twenties, since it involved the mowing, curing, raking, and transporting of hay at the hottest point in the season - mid-summer. Like other field tasks, haying was at the mercy of the weather, and once the process had begun wet weather could lead not only to delays but to a spoiled crop. It was imperative to complete work during dry weather, which meant as quickly as possible.[66]

Of all the haying tasks, mowing was the most tolerable. It was a light-draft job which, in many ways, was more suited to animal power than engine power. Engine power was advantageous, however, in the large hay-producing areas of Alberta and Saskatchewan, especially where consistent weather could be reasonably expected during the haying season. Where engine power was employed, a large crop could be mown in one day. Once the hay had cured to the point of drying, it would be raked into light windrows where it was allowed to dry thoroughly. It was

Figure 21: Haying an alfalfa field on the Smith farm near Vauxhall, Alberta, circa 1921. Note the large haystacker in the background operated by horse-power. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P578.)

then loaded and baled simultaneously through a combination of a hay loader and gasoline driven hay baler. The hay was lifted into the loader, fell into the chute and slid into the mouth of the baler where it was tied and subsequently deposited onto the ground.[67]

Mowing, raking, loading and baling by engine power was labour and cost efficient when dealing with large haying areas. However, many farmers preferred to perform haying work through horse-power alone. They felt that horses did not trample as much hay as did tractors. In addition, only large commercial hay growers needed to bale hay for shipping purposes. On smaller farms, hay could easily be left loose.[68]

Small farms were not the only ones which preferred horse-power for haying. The Strange farm had approximately 300 acres in wild prairie hay during the early 1920s, and performed all their haying with the help of a hired crew and a number of mowers each powered by a team of horses.[69] A portion of their hay was sold each year. Haying began on the Strange farm during the last week of July or first week of August, depending on the weather. Each individual worker mowed 10-12 acres per day which then lay in a swath and cured for a day or two, again depending on the dryness of the weather. The hay would then be raked into windrows, and the windrows themselves cocked up into piles measuring approximately eight feet in width and five feet in height. These piles were then stacked by means of a hay slide. Six to seven haycocks were pulled up the slide with a buckrake - a wide implement made of heavy timber and drawn by four horses. The hay was pulled up the slide and dumped off its top to form a huge hay stack measuring approximately 10 feet in width, eight to 10 feet in height and 120 feet in length.

The Batemans used a similar loading device, but of domestic construction. Although their haying operation was not exceptionally large, it was the largest of the sample group. They had 60 acres of upland hay and 20 acres of slough hay - a total of 80 acres of wild hay.[70] The Stone family had about 50 acres of wild hay, while the Elaschuks were only able to make hay in small areas scattered throughout their farm. Unlike the preceeding families, the Slemkos seeded alfalfa (10 acres) and brome grass (five acres) on their farm. The Salahubs

seeded brome grass as well, but only about 15 acres, and this was the only haying that they did.[71]

Haying was conducted fairly early on the Salahub farm - usually during the first week of July. It was mown once it had attained a good height, and only one mowing was done each season. Peter Salahub did the mowing work using a mower (kosarka) drawn by two horses. Hay was then raked into windrows (valky) and left on the ground to cure in the dry prairie wind and warm summer. Raking was done with a hay rake (hrabarka) of the dump variety, which was also drawn by two horses. Once it had cured sufficiently (a matter of days depending on the weather), the hay was loaded onto hayracks (herlyky) by hand and pitchfork and transported to the barn.[72]

The actual mowing work deserves some attention. Mowing was not difficult work, but it required a great deal of care. To do a good job, the horses had to be driven carefully so that the cutting bar of the mower cut a full swath without the horses stepping on uncut grass. Turning at corners was difficult. If the turn was not made squarely, bunches of uncut grass would be scattered throughout the field.[73] This type of care in mowing was almost second nature to Peter Salahub. Generally, he was conscientious in his work habits. He was an agile young man, skillful in operating a team of horses, and able to maintain straight neat corners in mowing.[74]

Haystackers came into use during the mid-twenties, but were restricted mainly to large farming operations. The haystacker consisted of a huge frame with pivotally-mounted lifting arms which were capable of lifting, carrying and depositing large quantities of hay.[75]

Haying in Ukraine at the turn of the century usually followed the sowing of crops. This sometimes occurred as early as mid-June. In some regions, it was the custom for entire villages to initiate haying (kosovytsia) as a collective undertaking. Within a few days, village meadows would be covered with haycocks (kopytsi). Small portions were taken to village stables immediately, but haycocks remained in meadows and by roadsides throughout the year (see Figures 2 and 10).[76] In the Boiko region, haying started during mid-July, with the first meadows mown

Figure 22: Examples of large haystacks (oborohy, sinnyky) traditionally used in Ukraine to dry and cure hay. Top, two smaller haystacks (kopytsi) are situated nearby. Bottom, this haystack is fashioned above a storage hut. (Figures 81 and 82 in M. Sopoliga, Narodna Arkhitektura Ukraintsiv Skhidnoi Slovachchyny. Svydnyk: 1976.)

being those closest to the village. During August, and September, haying was conducted in the hilly regions surrounding the village.[77] In the Carpathian mountain region of Western Ukraine, hay was cut only once a season, and the damp climate of the region made the use of special drying apparatus (ostrovienytsi) a necessity. This apparatus elevated hay above ground, stored and cured it in one process.[78] Throughout Ukraine, hay was mown with scythes (kosa) sharpened with whetstones (brusy), and was loaded with forks (vyla) into haystacks (oborohy, stohy).[79]

The final phase of summer work, and the most demanding, was harvest. Essentially, harvest consisted of two major jobs - cutting grain and stooking it. Hauling stooks to a certain location on the farm in preparation for threshing was still done on some farms during the 1920s. Most farmers, however, left their grain standing in stooks until they were ready to thresh.[80]

The harvest period began on prairie farms once the grain had ripened sufficiently. Wheat was cut before it attained a perfect ripeness. Like all grain, it was usually cut with a binder - the most popular cutting machine of the twenties. The binder cut a wide swath of six to eight feet of grain, tied the grain into bundles of 10-12 inches in diameter, and deposited these sheaves in rows alongside the machine. These sheaves were placed in stooks, consisting of six to eight individual sheaves set against one another, in such a manner that they could remain standing securely indefinitely. This process itself was termed stooking. Grain sheaves were stooked in order to assist the grain in drying and curing, while lessening the chance of injury to grain seed from weather conditions.[81]

The length of time necessary to complete the harvest work depended on the size of one's grain crop, the available labour, and the weather. Often farmers ran their binders from morning until night, changing a three-horse team at noon and continuing work after an early supper. Time was extremely precious during harvest, and getting the crop in as quickly and efficiently as possible was critical.[82] For this reason, hiring extra labour was most common during the harvest period. Kathleen Strange describes the great numbers of men who swarmed to the prairies during the

Figure 23: Stookers follow behind a horse-drawn binder as it reaps a grain field near Vegreville, circa 1927. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. B538.)

last week of August throughout the twenties. Many of these men were specialists in operating binders, in stooking, and in mechanics. These seasonal workers would simply stand in the streets of prairie towns and villages until picked up by local farmers requiring additional labour. They came from all parts of Canada, and all walks of life: lawyers, chartered accountants, teachers, clerks, mechanics, bootleggers, trappers and farmboys.[83]

The Salahubs, as mentioned earlier, did not hire extra help at any time. Like all other work involved in the crop production cycle, harvest work was accomplished mainly through the efforts of Peter Salahub who cut the wheat grain first. Harvesting was started, on the average, during mid-August. Peter drove the binder (bainder), which was drawn by three horses, and was usually able to cut approximately 20 acres per day. Although his working day was very long during harvest, the amount of grain cut depended on the weather and the condition of the binder. His binder would often require minor repair during the course of a day and, although Peter was well prepared (spare parts were always on hand), this meant delay. Should repairs be required, Peter would have to stop working, return to the farmyard, get the necessary parts and tools, return to the field, make the necessary repairs or adjustments, and return the tools to the farmyard before work on the harvest could be resumed.[84]

Stooking work (stukuvannia) was shared between Peter and his younger brother Nick. Gregorii stooked occasionally, but rarely and only for a couple of hours at a time. Nick, a schoolboy at the time, began stooking immediately upon his return from school. Peter stooked once he had finished cutting grain, and stooking was usually completed two to three days after all the grain had been cut.[85]

The Slemko family conducted their harvest work in a similar fashion to the Salahubs. They cut wheat first, followed by either oats or barley, depending on which ripened sooner. Stooking, however, was usually done concurrently with cutting. One man drove the binder, while the second stooked behind him. Vasyl and his father performed both these tasks, alternating one with the other.[86]

Stooking in the Elaschuk family was a job reserved for children (boys and girls included). Tanasko Elaschuk was quite strict in this regard, and during harvest insisted that his children stay home from school and stook. Tanasko himself ran the binder while his children followed behind, stooking. It was a tight operation and stooking on the Elaschuk farm was always completed at the same time as grain reaping.[87]

The actual method of stooking was universal on prairie farms, but the shape of stooks varied. The most common form seems to have been comprised of six sheaves of grain set against one another and leaning into one another at their heads. (Sometimes an additional sheave was set across the top of the stook for additional weight.) This method created round stooks, but often longer, rectangular stooks were fashioned of 10 or more sheaves. Stooks were always set firmly into the stubble ground so as to withstand the barrage of wind or rain without toppling over.[88]

Stooking on prairie farms was performed by women, men and children - basically by all available farm labour. It was a task performed by hand, and required as much attention as reaping itself. By the late 1920s, however, a mechanized stooker was marketed in Alberta.[89] The "stooker" was attached to a binder, and both implements were drawn by four horses. It received grain bundles as they were ejected from the binder, lifted them into a standing position before a placer which put them on opposite sides of a partition to the rear. The setting of the stook was accomplished by pushing the stook backward just as the machine moved forward, allowing it to settle into the ground while at a relative equilibrium of motion. The stooker could be set to place four, six, eight or 10 sheaves into the stook.

It is necessary to note that none of the sample group was aware of the existence of such a machine during the twenties, and its use was probably very limited.[90] Similarly, although the combine enjoyed greater use during the latter years of the twenties, its use was relatively limited in Alberta. The 1931 census reported only 2.5 percent of Alberta farms making use of the combine, compared to 62.7 percent using binders.[91]

Harvest in Ukraine was accomplished through reaping with the sickle

(serp), scythe (kosa), and cradle (hrabka) well into the late-nineteenth century. Binders (zhnyvarky, zhachky) appeared on the farming scene as early as the 1890s, but were almost entirely unknown among the peasantry.[92] Grain was usually harvested between late July and the end of August. It was tied into bundles (snopy) with grain stalks and placed in stooks of 30 (polukipky) or 60 (kopy) sheaves. Another means of stooking was to fashion three rows of four to five sheaves set in the ground and leaning into each other. Rye (zhyto) was usually stooked in six to 10 rows of sheaves.[93]

(iv) Fall

The end of the harvest period on a given prairie farm marked the end of summer, regardless of the actual date. The major work remaining for farmers to complete during fall was threshing. With the completion of threshing, some tillage and cultivation work was usually undertaken until frost forced farmers to stop all field work.[94]

The time needed to thresh a grain crop depended on the size of farm, the quality of crop, the size and condition of machinery used, and the weather. Once underway, threshing was a dawn-to-dusk activity. It was an arduous, dusty job, one which required the labour of many men. Most prairie farmers did not own their own threshing outfits during the twenties (only 12.6 percent of Alberta farm facilities reported ownership of a threshing maching in 1931).[95] Threshing outfits were owned either cooperatively or privately, and most farmers had to hire their services commercially. A threshing outfit consisted of a number of elements. There was the threshing machine itself (powered by some form of engine power), a working crew, and a number of hayracks drawn by horses needed to transport stooks to the threshing area. This method was known as stook threshing.

Sometimes threshing was done from previously-stacked stooks that had been moved to one central location on the farm following harvest (see Figure 24). This method was known as stack threshing, which by the 1920s was not as common as stook threshing for economic reasons. Farms had increased in size by the twenties and, consequently, so had grain crops.

Figure 24: Huge piles of stooks are stacked to await threshing on the Drumhell farm near Rosebud, Alberta, circa 1922. Although most farmers threshed directly from the stook by the mid-twenties, threshing from the stack was still practiced on prairie farms. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P649.)

Stacking grain was only economically feasible on smaller farms with relatively small grain yields.[96]

The threshing crew was often provided by the owner of the threshing outfit. It was usually comprised of an engineer, separator, pitchers, fireman, tankmen and bundlemen. The engineer was responsible for keeping the engine in good running order. He removed crust (left by hard prairie water) from the boiler, caulked, and replaced clogged flues in the mechanism. Should the machine break down, it was the engineer who worked through the night to repair it. He was a figure who commanded respect as he ensured the availability of power for the entire threshing operation and was regarded as something of a folkhero by youngsters of the day.

The separator's duty was to keep the threshing machine itself running smoothly. He oiled bearings, set proper belt tensions, and adjusted cylinders and sieves according to the dampness or dryness of straw. It was the separator who kept an eye on the number of weeds in the crop and the quality of grain itself. He was highly skilled and was required to produce clean grain, as well as prevent that grain from flying into the straw pile. In addition, the separator watched the pitchers to ensure that they pitched grain fast enough to keep the feeder full without choking it. He was responsible for the safety of the crew and worked to avoid accidents.

The fireman was needed on steam engine outfits as it was he who cleaned the engine flues, and built and sustained the fire which produced steam power. He was usually at work two hours earlier than the rest of the crew, building a fire, and then shovelled fuel steadily throughout the entire day. He was assisted by the tankmen, who watched the level of water in the steam boiler and provided fuel for burning.

Lastly, it was the bundlemen who drove stooks to the threshing site and transported threshed grain away from the site. There were anywhere from four to eight or more bundlemen, each driving his own hayrack and team.[97]

The Salahubs almost always threshed (molotyly) their grain from the stook, as did most of their neighbours. These farmers exchanged labour among themselves, as well as with the owner of the threshing outfit. In

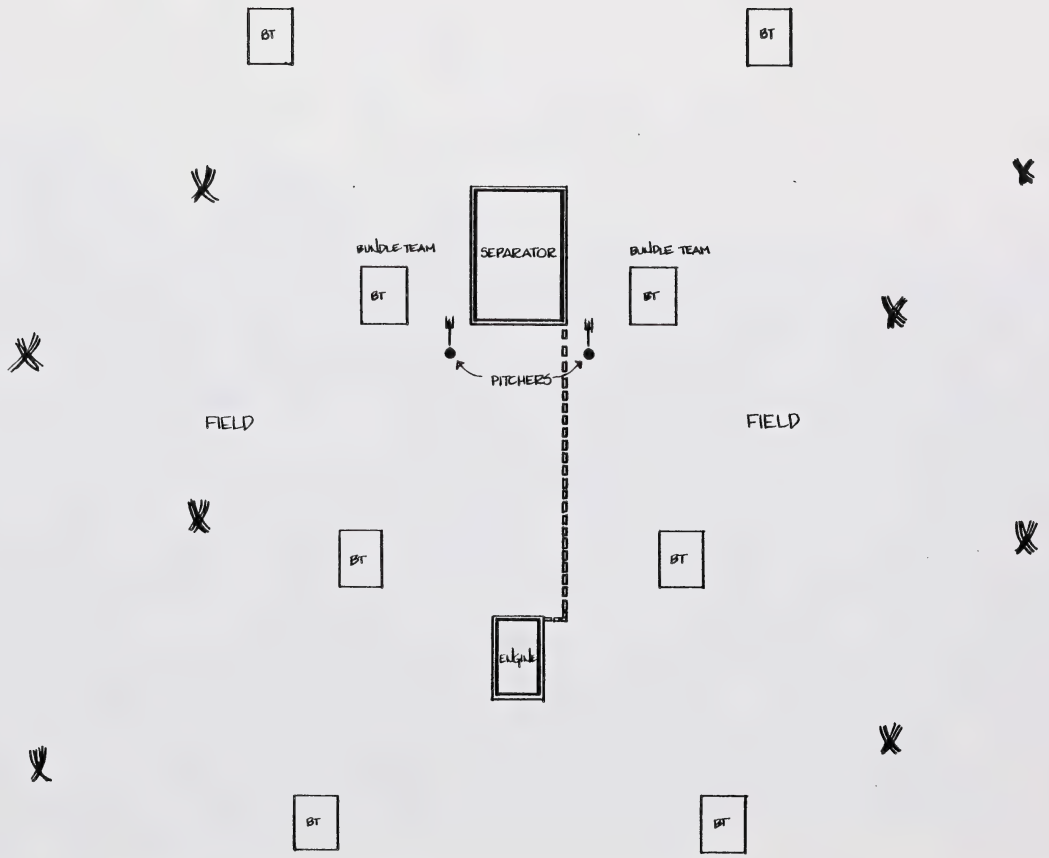


Figure 25: This graphic depicts the threshing process on the Salahub farm. An engine-powered separator was kept loaded by two pitchers who pitched bundles of grain from nearby hayracks without interruption. Once bundle teams were depleted fresh teams replaced them, as bundle teams gathered stooks from the field and hauled them to the threshing area. (Drawing by [illegible])

this manner, they avoided the need for hiring extra labour and paying the threshing machine owner. The Salahubs used different threshers during different years, and these machines ranged in size from 28-inch to 40-inch outfits. The smaller machines were powered by gas tractors, while the larger machines required the power of a large steam engine. Threshing the Salahubs' grain crop with a 18-inch outfit usually took three to four days, while threshing with the larger 40-inch outfit took only two days provided weather conditions remained stable.[98]

Weather was a critical element in both starting and completing grain threshing. Peter recalled years when harvest was late and frost early, preventing farmers in the area from threshing their grain at all until the following spring. When such conditions prevailed, the Salahubs' grain was either left standing on the field in stooks or was transported to and stacked in a central location on the farm, where it remained throughout the winter months. Some of it was spoiled during the winter by rodents, such as mice.

In order to thresh their grain, the Salahubs had to wait until a threshing machine in the vicinity was free. A group of neighbours, each bringing his own hayrack and team of horses, would assemble on the Salahub farm . If the Salahubs were using a large outfit, they needed eight to 10 hauling teams, while six would suffice for a smaller outfit. These bundle teams were all headed by experienced farmers and required no supervision, but were directed to some extent by Peter. Peter did every kind of job while threshing his grain crop - pitching, hauling, shovelling fuel - "whatever was required." There were only two professional men in these local threshing crews - the engineer and separator - one (or both) of whom owned the outfit. They performed their duties as outlined above, while the other men performed every necessary task. It was very important to maintain a steady pace in threshing work. Bundle teams (herlyky) hauled without interruption but spaced themselves out so that pitchers pitched from two hayracks alongside the separator itself; two additional hayrakes were in the immediate vicinity waiting to move into place once the first ones were emptied; two were en route to the threshing site, and others were in the field collecting

Figure 26: Two perspectives of a threshing crew in action, circa 1927. Top photograph was taken on a farm near Vegreville, Alberta. (Provincial Archives Acc. Nos. B543, A7769.)

stooks (see Figure 25). This continuous turnover was maintained from dawn to dusk, and bundle teams made 20 to 25 trips in a single day. Larger outfits required additional bundle teams to ensure work proceeded at a proper pace.[99]

Threshing on the Salahub farm was done somewhere in the field, usually in the north central area of SE 33-59-17 (see Figure 16). Because straw extracted from grain was stored in the field throughout the entire winter, Peter preferred to thresh in an open area easily accessible to himself and the livestock. Grain itself was threshed into portable granaries or directly into wagons. These portables remained in the field until threshing was complete, then were hauled to and unloaded at the main granary (shpitliar) in the farmyard. Grain was hauled to the granary by at least two wagons. One was loaded while the other made the trip to the granary, where it was unloaded and subsequently driven back to the threshing site to be loaded again.

All of the Salahub grain - wheat and rye - was threshed during this period. Clara Bateman recalled threshing outfits in her region allocating priorities to the threshing of grain, so that all farmers' wheat was threshed first, followed by oats and barley. This practice was more cumbersome, but enabled farmers to get their most valuable cash crop - wheat - into market faster. Small threshing outfits could thresh 1,000-1,500 bushels of grain per day, while larger outfits threshed 3,000 bushels.[100]

The Elaschuks had a relatively small grain crop during the twenties, and usually threshed from the stack during these years. Stooks were hauled to a location near the farmyard and placed in large round stacks measuring 16 feet in diameter and eight feet in height. They threshed their grain directly into bags (mishky) designed to hold two bushels of grain. These bags were hauled to the granary by wagon and emptied.[101]

Threshing in Western Ukraine at the turn of the century was done by hand and flail (tsip). Farmers (hospodari) began to thresh (molotyly) in late autumn, and continued to thresh throughout the winter months until the work was completed.[102] In the Boiko region, they threshed rye

(zhyto) first, followed by wheat (pshenytsia), oats (oves), and barley (iachmin). Threshing was done on a specially prepared floor (tik, harman), or in the granary (klunia). Sometimes wagons (vozy) or rollers drawn by draft animals were used to thresh. These were often weighted with produce or children. Threshing machines (molotarky) did not appear until well into the 1920s.[103]

The other field tasks accomplished during fall on prairie farms was limited tillage and cultivation work, as well as the seeding of winter grain. Farmers plowed as much stubble field under as possible during fall in order to conserve moisture, as well as to enable the soil to receive additional moisture from rain and snow.[104] Farmers were restricted in the amount of plowing they could complete by the timing of harvest and threshing, and the first winter frosts but it was desirable to work as much land as possible before winter set in. An attempt to disk fallow land one last time before winter was also advisable. Where winter grain was seeded, land was plowed, harrowed, seeded and packed in the same manner as during spring.

The burning of stubble land as a means of clearing was done on many farms. By the late 1920s special stubble-burning machinery was being marketed to assist in this process. The benefits of burning were listed as the reduction of seed and insect damage to soil, increased yields, and lower cost of seed-bed preparation (since it was cheaper to burn than to plow).[105]

None of the sample group burned stubble fields. However, they made an attempt to till and cultivate during the fall. Peter Salahub tried to plow land each fall, although he did not have the time to do so every year. He plowed during fall in the same manner as during spring. Vasyl Slemko occasionally plowed during fall as well, but usually not more than 20-35 acres of stubble land. Land plowed in the fall was not plowed again in spring. One of the main objectives of fall plowing for Peter and Vasyl was to plow wild oats (vivtsiuha) under in order to control this weed.[106]

Fall tillage and seeding were more common in the Boiko region of Western Ukraine. Land was plowed immediately following harvest and left

for a few weeks to kill weed growth. It was then manured, plowed again, harrowed, and sown with winter rye. Although this practice was common, if it was impeded by the arrival of winter frost and snow then winter seeding would be cancelled for that year.[107]

(v) Winter

The winter months on prairie farms during the twenties were spent in performing house and barn chores, cutting and transporting wood for fuel, and a number of other odd jobs that were part of a farmer's normal routine. Barn work involved feeding livestock, bedding horses and cattle in clean straw, as well as grooming horses. These animals required regular outdoor exercise, and were often led out to feed at straw piles in the farmyard or field. Other chores such as cleaning grain seed, milking cows, churning butter and sharpening tools were all done during winter. Grain was hauled to town, to be either sold or ground at the mill. The main winter chore, however, was cutting and hauling wood for fuel. Cutting wood was a heavy job, usually reserved for two men. Logs were felled with a cross-cut saw, cut into lengths, split into chunks, then piled in the woods and left to dry.[108]

Peter Salahub spent his winters performing the chores listed above. He fed livestock in the barn, carried and cleaned horses, changed their bedding, and most days led cattle out to the strawpile for feeding. His major occupation was hauling wood from bush areas in the district. Often he had to start out before daybreak in order to make the five-mile return trip before dusk. Gregorii spent his winters mainly in leisure activity. Although he occasionally went into town or out on a visit, and did some light barn chores, he left the major responsibilities of running the farm during winter to his son. Peter cut wood using both a buck and hand saw (pylka) and it was piled in the woods to dry, sometimes until the next winter. He hauled it by sleigh (sany), using both sets of runners drawn by two horses.[109]

C. Transportation

(i) Non-Winter Transportation

The vehicle universally utilised for prairie farm transportation during the twenties was the farm wagon. It was designed so that its box (which came in single, double and triple sizes) could be removed. A hayrack could be placed on the wagon gear, and used to haul hay or grain sheaves. The wagon was usually drawn by a team of horses.[1] Although automobiles and motor trucks were increasingly present on western Canadian farms throughout the twenties. The 1931 census figures show 42.1 percent of Alberta farms reporting automobiles, but only 7.3 percent of Alberta farms owning motor trucks. These figures indicate that whereas the automobile was gaining in popularity as a vehicle used for social purposes, the motor truck was only partially replacing the traditional horse and wagon as the primary means of farm transportation.[2] The early popularity of automobiles on farms is further underscored by the fact that in 1927, 37 percent of all Canadian automobiles were owned by farmers.[3] Bertha Stone recalls her family owning a car as early as 1915. It was used primarily for family transportation during the summer, while the farm hauling was reserved for the family wagon.[4] By the end of the twenties, cars were a common sight in Alberta. Kathleen Strange mentions the large number of cars and trucks lining the streets of Fenn in 1929. Many farmers owned not one but two cars in Strange's district and the automobile itself was seen as an established symbol of prosperity.[5]

The Salahubs, like most of their neighbours, did not own any motorized vehicles during the 1920s. Their main means of transportation was the farm wagon (viz), which was equipped with a double box. In addition, they had a fancy buggy (boga) which Peter Salahub owned between 1926-27. This buggy appears to have been Peter's pride and joy, and was used solely by him and only for special social occasions such as dances and weddings.[6]

Thus, it was the wagon that served as the principal hauling vehicle in non-winter months on the Salahub farm. The wagon was used to haul all

farm products, such as grain, livestock, and feed. It was equipped with a hayrack for hauling sheaves of grain, while either a single or a double box was used for grain itself. Grain was hauled on the farm, as well as into town to be sold at the elevator or ground at the mill. Generally, grain was sold only as often as necessary to meet financial needs. Peter would haul as much as several hundred bushels or as little as a few dozen bushels to be sold at the elevator, depending on the amount of cash needed by the family for tax payments, supplies or other necessities. Hauling grain to town was one task favoured by Gregorii. Although he could not perform strenuous jobs, he enjoyed an occasional outing such as afforded by the short trip to town.

The Salahubs usually sold their grain at a Smoky Lake elevator. However, during the busy post-threshing season elevators filled up quickly, and they sometimes had to haul their grain to elevators in Bellis, Vilna or Radway in order to sell it. Clara Bateman recalled her father telephoning towns in the vicinity of the family's farm as a matter of routine in order to ascertain the best grain price. He would then haul grain to that town, even if it meant going an extra mile or two.[7]

The other major purpose of the farm wagon was personal transportation.[8] The wagon was used to transport entire families to various social events, such as dances, school concerts, picnics, and auctions, as well as neighbourhood visits and church.[9] J.S. Woodsworth described social outings as an integral component of Ukrainian rural community life during the first decades of the century. These outings were major sources of entertainment, and focused on home visitations (during religious festivities [khram] and at other times) and picnics. Visiting was regarded as a recreational activity which provided a release from the isolation of the homestead.[10]

The Salahubs, together with all members of the sample group, conducted many such social outings. Peter Salahub, in particular, enjoyed dressing in his best Sunday attire (ubrannia) and driving his buggy (boga) into town for a local dance or picnic. He was an eligible young man (parubok) during the late twenties and socializing with his peers was a favourite, if infrequent, pastime.[11]

Figure 27: Farmers hauling their grain to be sold at these Rockyford, Alberta grain elevators, circa 1920. Note the varying size in grain boxes and the wagon being drawn by a tractor. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. P658.)

Transportation in Ukraine was provided by the four-wheel cart (furmanka) or wagon (viz) at the turn of the century. These vehicles were drawn by an ox or horse, depending on the individual farmer's means. They were used for social outings as well as for hauling farm produce.[12]

(ii) Winter Transportation

Winter transportation on prairie farms, for both social and non-social purposes, was provided largely by horse-drawn sleigh. In the southern prairies, particularly in Alberta, it was impossible to use a sleigh for weeks at a time during winter because of Chinook winds. These warm winds melted snow from the otherwise hard, rutted ground, rendering sleigh travel impossible. During these periods, wagons were used instead. The central and northern regions of the province remained snowbound throughout winter, and a variety of sleighs provided the necessary transportation.

The most common sleigh used was the bob-sleigh, which consisted of a double set of runners designed to carry the ordinary wagon box. This vehicle was used for all purposes on the farm: hauling grain, feed, milk churns, groceries, supplies, livestock, firewood and people. It was utilised for chores on the farm and to drive to neighbours' farms, church, school and town. Hayracks could be fitted onto the sleigh to carry hay or straw. Jumpers (small box-like sleighs set on runners, and usually home-made) were used for personal transportation purposes.[13]

The frigid conditions of Alberta winters necessitated the provision of some means of external warmth when travelling in an open sleigh. Hay spread over the floor of the box and with pre-heated stones or bricks nestled in it provided a fairly comfortable ride for passengers covered with horse blankets or tarpaulin covers. The driver, however, experienced the full force of the cold, as he was totally exposed to the elements. Many farmers set heated sacks of oats or potatoes, flat-irons, or cream churns filled with boiled water at their feet to ward off some of the cold.

Another problem of winter sleigh travel was braking on steep

Figure 28: The most popular form of winter transportation - horse-drawn sleigh. Two teams haul a massive load of logs destined for a lumber company, circa 1925. (Provincial Archives Acc. No. A2851.)

hills. Various methods were used for this purpose. A tree trunk was chained to the back of the sleigh at the top of the hill, or a chain was placed under the front runner. Some farmers carried boxes of sand on the sleigh and sprinkled their contents over the track before attempting to descend the hill.

Peter Salahub was the sleigh driver on his farm. The sleigh was drawn by two horses, and Peter braked by placing a chain (lantsiuh) under the front runner of the sleigh (sany). He warmed briquets in the oven overnight, then placed them at his feet to keep them warm. Peter used the sleigh for all the purposes listed above, fitting it with the hayrack in order to haul straw from the straw pile in the field back to the barn. Peter's main work during the winter months consisted of hauling firewood, as mentioned earlier, which he did using the sleigh.[14]

Peter owned a small cutter (zalubytsi) from 1926-27 which he rarely used for personal transportation. The cutter was smaller, faster, more comfortable and more expensive than the sleigh. It was generally regarded as a status symbol by farmers and, together with his buggy, was one of Peter's most cherished possessions. Cutters required regular oiling with pure castor oil, and their upholstery was cleansed with camphor or turpentine. Peter dutifully performed these tasks during the brief period he owned his cutter.[15]

Winter transportation in Ukraine was also provided by sleighs drawn by horses. They came in various sizes and decorated variants were known as gryndzholy.[16]

D. Tasks Associated with Machinery

(i) Horses

The horses kept on Alberta farms during the 1920s were largely work horses. As mentioned above, few farmers had acquired motor trucks by 1930, and it was the horse that provided the principal source of power on the farm. Horse power was both economical and practical. Horses provided reliable cartage and transportation services in return for feeding, grooming and shoeing. They also added to a farmer's barnyard

Figure 29: A wooden wagon (viz) stored behind a villager's home in Ukrainian ethnographic territory of eastern Slovakia. Similar wagons were used by Ukrainian farmers (hospodari) at the turn of the century in Western Ukraine. (Figure 90 in M. Sopoliga, Narodna Arkhitektura Ukraintsiv Skhidnoi Slovachchyny. Svydnyk: 1976.)

manure supply - a valuable commodity on all farms.[1]

Horses were essential in providing rapid transportation of people and goods over rough prairie roads. Every farmer was a horse breeder during the twenties, and farm horses were invariably of mixed breed.[2] Following the widespread introduction of tractor power on prairie farms, most farmers remained devoted to the benefits of animal power. J.R. Motherwell was one such farmer who, regardless of the success of his farming enterprise, refused to allow tractors on his farm until 1939. He preferred relying exclusively on horses.[3]

Although most farmers bred horses, professional horse-breeding ranches existed in Alberta during the twenties. The largest of these was the Hugh Forster ranch located at Cessford. In 1928, it was reputed to be the largest breeder of purebred Shires in the world, with some 800 head on the ranch. Forster's most prosperous years were the early teens, when the demand for horses by new settlers was greatest. By the 1920s, prairie farmers, including all of the sample group, bred their own animals.[4]

Several breeds of horses were used on prairie farms during the twenties. The most popular horses were Clydesdales and Percherons,[5] although the average farmer used a variety of cross-breeds to work his farm. Horses were categorized as heavy draft, agricultural or light draft, farm chunks, general purpose, roadster or light harness, and thoroughbred or running horses. Heavy draft horses weighed at least 1600 pounds and were used for heavy load hauling, mainly in cities. Agricultural or light draft horses were of a heavy build (1400-1600 pounds) but lacked the necessary breeding to attain a heavy draft status. Farm chunks were small, chunky horses, 1200-1400 pounds in weight. Although used extensively in Canada, they were generally considered unprofitable. General purpose horses were common on prairie farms. They performed various tasks but, because of their lighter weight, were limited to light field work and hauling. Roadsters or light harness horses were used for trotting and pacing. They weighed 1000-1500 pounds, and by the mid-twenties were rapidly being replaced by the automobile. Thoroughbred or running horses were a specialized breed that

were not used in farm work.[6]

Farmers generally grew their own green feed for horses. The quality and quantity of this feed depended largely on the manner of feeding, the size and condition of the horse, as well as the amount and nature of work performed by the horse. It was advisable to supply a horse with better and more food in the working season. A formula for feeding advocated by agricultural specialists was one and one-tenth to one and one-quarter pounds of grain, and one and one-eighth pound of hay per 100 pounds of live weight. Timothy grass mixed with red clover or brome grass combined with oats was considered a healthy nutritious meal for horses.[7]

During the mid-twentiies the Salahubs owned eight horses (koni), whose average weight was 1200-1400 pounds.[8] Like other farmers, they bred their own animals. They were fed hay three times a day, and given a supplement of oats (which the Salahubs had to purchase) daily. Peter did not moderate the quantity of feed during the working season, stating that the horses were fed "as much as they wanted" throughout the year. (For comparable data as to the number and quality of horses owned by other members of the sample group see Appendix B: Farmstead Description Matrix.)

Although horses were used as draft animals in Ukraine at the turn of the century, many farmers (hospodari) could not afford them. As a result, oxen and cows, or calves, were harnessed to perform field work. In the most destitute of circumstances, the hospodar and his wife (hospodarka) were forced to draw implements themselves.[9]

(ii) Harnessing and Hitching

In using horse-drawn machinery, proper harnessing and hitching of draft animals was of primary importance. Animals had to be secured to machinery properly in order to ensure proper tension and a good steady pull. It was not advisable to overload horses, since the only conceivable outcome would be poor tillage. The average horse weighed 1300-1700 pounds and pulled about one-tenth of his weight at a good rate without undue strain. Problems in pulling were usually attributable to

improper hitching. If the angle of tracing in a harness was too high, hitching could not be done correctly. The angle had to be properly applied to allow the animal to work freely with an equal distribution of weight throughout its body. Another serious problem resulting from improper hitching was the disengaging of the implement from the horses due to the main implement pole falling out of the horse's neckyoke. This could result in serious accidents; thus ensuring that harnesses and hitches fit properly together was of paramount importance.[10]

Peter Salahub was very conscientious in his habits while harnessing and hitching horses. He was careful to groom the animals first, cleaning and brushing them, then applying harnesses (upriazh) and sweat pads (podushky), as well as nose guards if necessary, and leading them to the machinery where they were carefully hitched (see Figure 30).[11] These tasks were always performed by Peter. Even when it was Gregorii who was to use the wagon, Peter harnessed and hitched the team.

The main teamster on the Elaschuk farm, however, was Tanasko, while Vasyl Slemko and his father divided these tasks among them. Clara Bateman did not harness horses, since this job was reserved for men on her farm. On the other hand, Bertha Stone claimed to have "harnessed and hitched just like a man." The custom among all these farmers was to harness by the barn but hitch at the implement. In the case of field machinery this meant leading harnessed horses out to the field where machinery remained standing in the working season, during both lunch breaks and overnight.[12]

(iii) Machinery Maintenance and Repair

One of the greatest factors in ensuring a successful farm operation during the twenties was the proper maintenance and repair of machinery. During the mid-twenties, the Farmer's Advocate and Home Magazine described the successful farm as one whose implements were kept under adequate cover, were well-oiled, cleaned, and repaired as required.[13] Implements operated by engine power were to be kept especially well adjusted and in good condition, as it was estimated neglect in this area could result in a 40-50 percent loss of quality.[14]

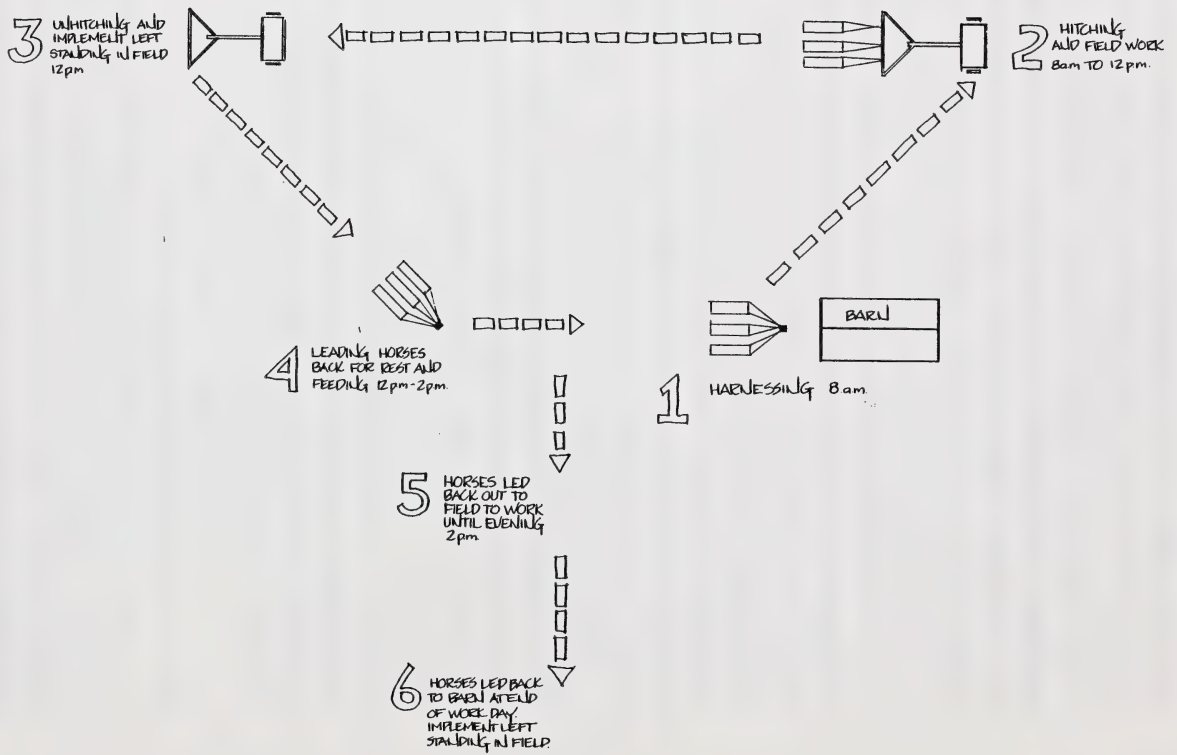

3 UNHITCHING AND IMPLEMENT LEFT STANDING IN FIELD 12pm
2 HITCHING AND FIELD WORK 8am TO 12pm.
BARN
4 LEADING HORSES BACK FOR REST AND FEEDING 12pm-2pm.
1 HARNESSING 8am.
5 HORSES LED BACK OUT TO FIELD TO WORK UNTIL EVENING 2pm.
6 HORSES LED BACK TO BARN AT END OF WORK DAY. IMPLEMENT LEFT STANDING IN FIELD.

Figure 30: Peter Salahub's method in harnessing and hitching horses is depicted. Horses were harnessed at the barn hitched to and unhitched from an implement in the field. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

Another aspect of proper housing and maintenance for machinery was the importance of general farm appearance. J.R. Motherwell was adamant on this point. He insisted on maintaining a clean, uncluttered landscape on his farm, and all machinery and vehicles were put away when out of use. At the end of each working season machinery was dismantled, serviced, repainted and stored away as a matter of course.[15]

J.S. Woodsworth criticized the early Ukrainian rural settlements for their poor habits in the storage and maintenance of machinery.[16] By the 1920s, however, articles on proper machine maintenance proliferated in the Ukrainian-language press circulating in western Canada. It was clear that this subject was equally as vital to Ukrainian agriculturalists.[17]

The responsibility for machinery maintenance and storage on the Salahub farm also fell on Peter Salahub. Peter maintained implements on a daily basis during the working season. Each one was oiled and greased as required throughout the working day. This work was done in the field or farmyard - rarely in the machine shed (shopa). Bolts (shruby) and rivets (niuty) were tightened when necessary. The plow, disk, seed drill, mower, hay rake and binder all required constant attention when in use. Although the harrow had no moving parts its steel spikes were replaced from time to time when broken. A supply of extra parts was always kept on hand during the work season in order to eliminate time-consuming trips into town in search of a needed spare part.[18]

The binder, in particular, required much attention when in use. It was necessary to constantly ensure the canvas (polotno) had been fitted properly and was not slipping. Fresh twine (shnur) had to be applied and threaded through the machine from time to time. The size of the bundles had to be regulated, and the machine oiled and greased at least three times per day. At the end of the work day, the rollers were loosened for the night.

The plow, mower and hay rake all required oiling throughout the day. These machines had special moldings to enable them to carry oilcans (oliiarky) while in operation. The disk had special grease (mastylo, shmir) cups that had to be filled in order to allow its internal

mechanism to function without friction.[19]

Although Peter housed machinery in the machine shed when it was not in use, he left it in the field during its particular work season (see Figure 30). Although this contributed to the machine's deterioration (as it was exposed to harmful climatic elements, such as wind, rain and hail) it seems to have been a common practice among farmers.[20]

E. Gardening

The garden was an integral part of the prairie farm. It was only from the garden that farmers were able to glean their supply of vegetables and garden products for the entire year. Traditionally, gardens have been very popular among Ukrainians. Every farmer (hospodar) in Ukraine kept a garden. In Bukovyna, hospodari grew every type of vegetable in their gardens, as well as flax (lon) and hemp (konopli) for fibre, and sunflowers (soniashnyky) for oil. Gardens were tilled by shovel (lopata), sown by hand and tended with hoes (motyka-rohachka).[1]

This gardening tradition was carried over to the new land by Ukrainian settlers. As noted by J.S. Woodsworth, gardens were almost universal in Ukrainian rural communities. The garden was an important economic component of farm life, as a vital source of food. It was also an object for display on which farmers prided themselves.[2]

Articles on garden management often appeared in the Ukrainian-language press of the twenties.[3] However, the popularity of gardening was not restricted to Ukrainians on prairie farms. All of the sample group grew gardens. Agricultural publications of the twenties all dealt with gardening in their columns and articles.[4]

Some farmers were exceptionally adept at gardening. J.R. Motherwell's garden was the farm's showpiece. Motherwell's garden was located in a low-lying area of the farm where it was able to retain more moisture, and was protected by a shelter belt of trees and shrubs. Its south and east sides were bordered by a thin belt of maple plantings, enabling plenty of sunshine to filter through. The crops themselves were planted north to south, which was unusual for prairie gardens. Most

farmers planted crops in ascending order from east to west in order to receive the full benefit of the sun's rays. Because of the elongated configuration of the Motherwell garden, however, north to south planting was preferable. Each year one-half of the garden was left fallow to allow soil to rejuvenate.[5] Motherwell's garden was tilled by gang plow and was probably watered with fresh water from a creek. Because it was located at the south side of a shed, the garden enjoyed the added benefit of a greenhouse effect. The effect was created by the rebounding rays of the sun from the shed wall and the natural tree-lined enclosure of the garden itself.

The Salahubs had two garden locations, and alternated their garden (horod) from one to the other in successive years. The first was located behind the machine shed, and the second was in a former sheep corral at the north end of the barn. The garden was the first area to be tilled in spring. Peter Salahub plowed it with the riding plow drawn by two horses, then harrowed it. In some years it was also disked. The seeding and hoeing was done by hand with hoes, and this work was mainly reserved for Nastasia Salahub and her daughter, Rose.[6]

The Salahubs grew all types of vegetables in their garden, including carrots, onions, peas, beans, beets, tomatoes, potatoes and cabbage. They also grew some hemp (konopli), which was used for oil. The garden covered a large plot, at least one-half acre in size. In addition to saving seeds from year to year, the family also purchased them at the local general store for planting.[7]

The garden crops were planted in ascending order but varied from one plot to the other. The garden located by the machine shed had crops running north to south, because it was more rectangular in shape and better suited to this configuration. The garden located by the barn, however, had a wide patch of cabbage at its east end which ran north to south, but the rest of the crops were planted east to west, and in ascending order to reap the full benefit of the sun's rays. The wide cabbage patch was planted in the manner described above in order to facilitate constant watering from a nearby well (see Figures 31 and 32 for illustrations of both garden plots).[8]

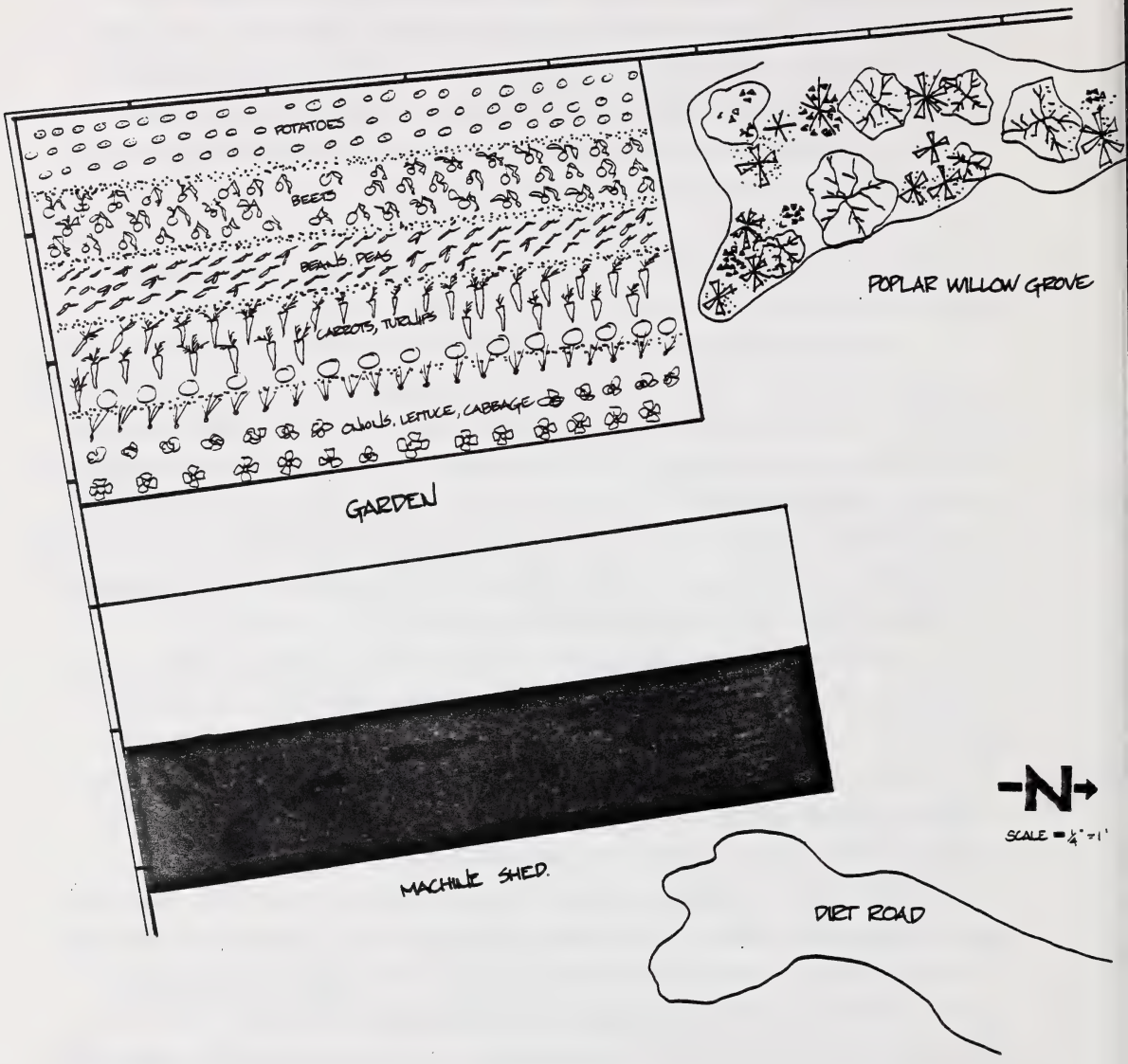


Figure 31: One of the Salahub gardens was located immediately west of the machine shed. Its crops were planted in ascending order in rows running north to south. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

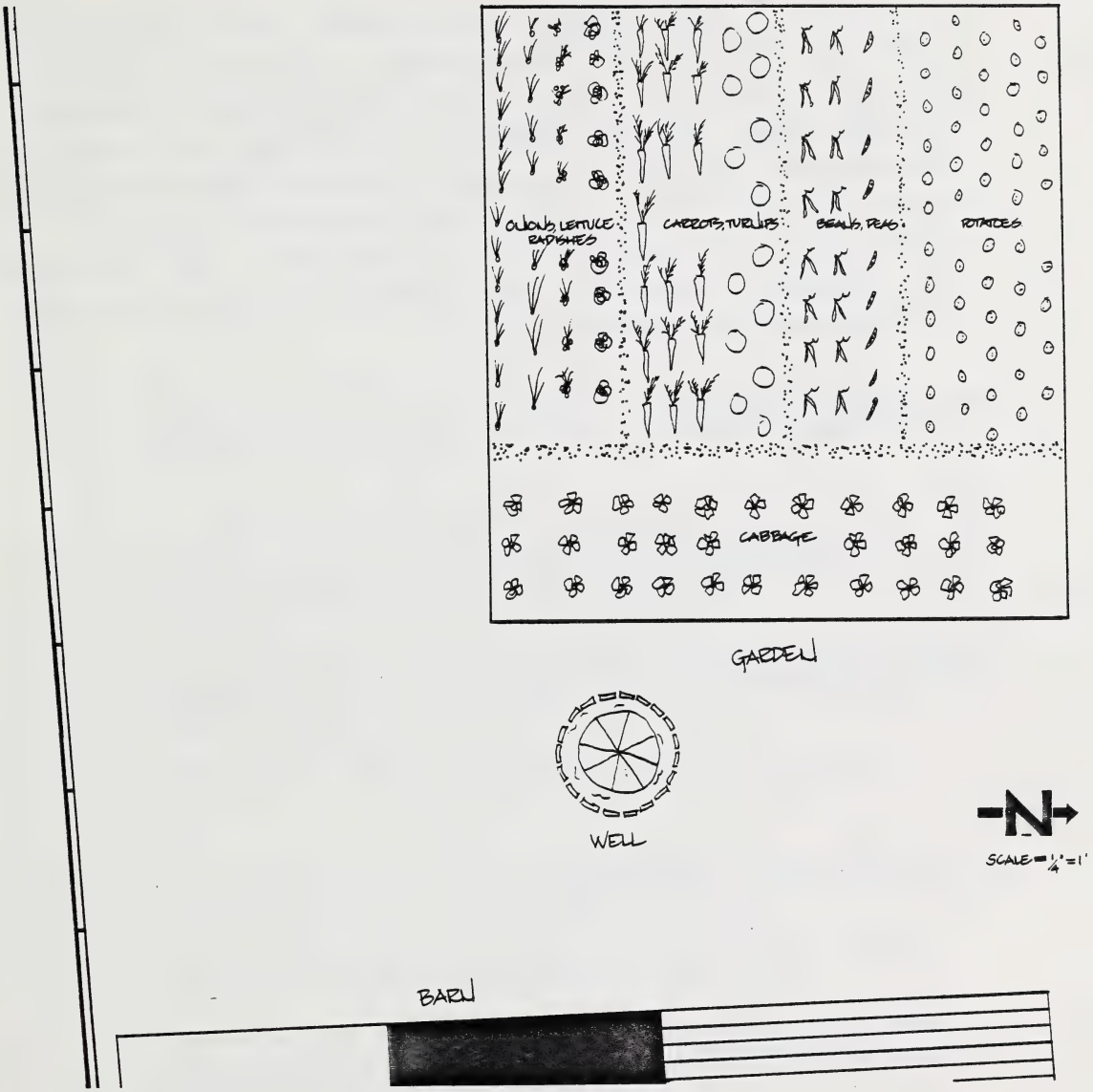


Figure 32: The second garden planted by the Salahubs was located immediately west of the barn and adjacent to a well. A large cabbage patch was planted here since it could be kept watered from the well. This patch was planted north to south while the other crops were planted in ascending order in rows running east to west. (Drawing by Donna Pastyr.)

Nastasia and Rose seeded the garden by hand. They carried seeds in a small pail, dug holes with a hoe, dropped in a seed and covered the hole again using the hoe. The garden was tended continually throughout the summer months. The soil was weeded diligently and certain crops, such as carrots, dry peas and beans, were thinned out while potatoes were hilled. Harvesting of the garden was done as individual vegetables ripened, but all the plants were dug up by early fall. Peter would then manure the plot by hand using a spread fork (vyla), and the garden would lie dormant until the following spring.[9]

ENDNOTES

CHAPTER II:

Field Work

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29. 1931 Canadian census, Agriculture, Table XLI, p. lxxxv.

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103. Hoshko, Boikivshchyna, p. 101 and Bezhkovych, "Evoliutsiia," p. 39.

104. Strange, West, p. 262.

105. "Stubble Burning Successful." The Farm and Ranch Review, November 26, 1928, p. 31.

106. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984 and Interview with Vasyl Slemko, Sonia Mary, May 18, 1984.

107. Hoshko, Boikivshchyna, p. 99.

108. Marshall, Century, p. 41.

109. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

C. Transportation

1. "Farm Machinery," Practical Farming in Canada (London: Colonization, Agriculture and Natural Resources Department, 1924?), p. 23.

2. 1931 Canadian census, Agriculture, Table XXIX, p. lxxiv.

3. "The Last West," Latest News From the West, February 1924, p. 4.

4. Interview with Bertha Palichuk, Sonia Maryn, May 12, 1984.

5. Kathleen Strange, With the West in Her Eyes, (Toronto: George J. McLeod, 1937), p. 282.

6. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

7. Interview with Clara Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.

8. P. G. Weatherell and Associates Ltd., Mixed Farmyards in Alberta, 1895-1955 (Alberta Culture, Reynolds-Alberta Museum, Background Paper 15, January 1984), p. 93.

9. See Allan Anderson, Remembering the Farm (Toronto: MacMillan of Canada, 1977) pp. 102, 145, 152, 221.

10. Frances Swyripa, "The Ukrainian Block in East Central Alberta," vol. 1 (Alberta Culture, Report to the Director of the Ukrainian Cultural Heritage Village, 1976), pp. 14-18.

11. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

12. Ukraine: A Concise Encyclopedia, 1963 ed., s.v. "Agriculture and its Supplementary Branches."

13. Elise A. Corbet, Horse-Drawn Vehicles Used for Winter Transportation in Alberta, 1870-1950 (Alberta Culture, Reynolds-Alberta Museum, Background Paper 8, February 1983), pp. 5-8, 54-56.

14. Unrecorded Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 31, 1984.

15. Ibid., and Corbet, Vehicles, p. 49.

16. Ukraine: A Concise Encyclopedia, "Agriculture and its Supplementary Branches."

D. Tasks Associated with Machinery

1. P. G. Weatherell and Associates Ltd., Mixed Farmyards in Alberta, 1895-1955 (Alberta Culture, Reynolds-Alberta Museum, Background Paper 15, January 1984), p. 93.

2. Ernest B. Ingles, "Some Aspects of Dry-Land Agriculture in the Canadian Prairies to 1925," M.A. thesis, University of Calgary, 1973, pp. 51-52.

3. Ian Clarke, Lyle Dick and Sarah Carter, Motherwell Historic Park, National Historic Parks and Sites Branch, Parks Canada, Environment Canada, 1983, p. 138.

   Note: Steam and gas tractors were used in the threshing season on the Motherwell farm during the twenties.

4. Una MacLean Collection, Interviews of Pioneers of East Central Alberta, 1957-59, Glenbow Archives Acc. No. D920.M163d and Interviews with Sample Group, Sonia Maryn.

5. Weatherell, Farmyards, p. 94.

6. "Livestock," Practical Farming in Canada (London: Colonization, Agriculture and Natural Resources Department, 1924?), pp. 6-7.

7. Ibid., p. 9.

8. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

   Note: The informant referred to his horses as being "heavy draft" animals. However, he may have underestimated their weight to some extent.

9. Khvedir Vovk, Studii z Ukrainskoi Etnohrafii ta Antropolohii (New York: Howerla, 1916 [1928]), p. 49.

10. "Power on Western Farms," The Nor'West Farmer, March 20, 1930, p. 21, and Unrecorded Interview with John Kvill, Sonia Maryn, May 24, 1984.

11. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

12. Interviews with Sample Group, Sonia Maryn.

13. "Farm Mechanics," Farmer's Advocate, January 15, 1925, p. 85.

14. "Power on Western Farms," The Nor'West Farmer, March 20, 1930, p. 21.

15. Clarke, Motherwell, p. 77.

16. Frances Swyripa, "The Ukrainian Bloc in East Central Alberta," vol. 1 (Alberta Culture, Report to the Director of the Ukrainian Cultural Heritage Village, 1976), p. 23.

17. See "Nyshchennia Farmerskoi Mashynerii," Ukraiinskyi Holos, April 21, 1926, p. 7 and "Hospodarski Spravy," UH, June 30, 1926, p. 7.

18. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

19. Telephone Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, June 5, 1984.

20. Interviews with Sample Group, Sonia Maryn.

E. Gardening

1. D. Kvitkovsky, T. Bryndzan and A. Zhukovsky, Bukovyna: ii Mynule i Suchasne (Paris: Zelena Bukovyna, 1956), pp. 59-60 and Yu. H. Hoshko et al., eds., Boikivshchyna: istoryko-etnohrafichne doslidzhennia (Kiev: Naukova Dumka, 1983), p. 95.

2. Frances Swyripa, "The Ukrainian Bloc in East Central Alberta," vol. 1 (Alberta Culture, Report to the Director of the Ukrainian Cultural Heritage Village, 1976), p. 31 and Wsevolod W. Isajiw, "Occupation and Economic Development," in A Heritage in Transition, ed. Manoly R. Lupul (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1982), p. 62.

3. See "Iake Znachinnia Maie dlia Nas Uprava Lenu ta Konopel," Kanadiiskyi Farmer, June 28, 1923, p. 3 and Nikolsky, Zamitky pro Silske Hospodarstvo, No. 4 (Winnipeg: Nova Biblioteka, n.d.), p. 27.

4. Interviews with Sample Group, Sonia Maryn and "The Woman's Garden," Grain Grower's Guide, April 7, 1920, p. 16, "The Garden," Agricultural Alberta, March 1921, p. 35.

5. Ian Clarke, Lyle Dick and Sarah Carter, Motherwell Historic Park, National Historic Parks and Sites Branch, Parks Canada, Environment Canada, 1983, pp. 72-77.

6. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

7. Unrecorded Interview with Rose Bronson, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.

8. Unrecorded Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 31, 1984.

9. Unrecorded Interview with Rose Bronson, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.

CHAPTER III:

Daily Schedules

CHAPTER III:

Daily Schedules

A. Peter Salahub[1]

Spring

- rise at 5 a.m.
- tend to horses, feed and water
- breakfast at house
- 7:30 - 8:00 a.m. fetch horses from barn and harness
- lead then out to field and hitch to implement, begin working
- 12 p.m. stop working
- unhitch horses in field and lead them back to barn where remove harness, feed, water and allow to rest
- lunch at house, then see to general chores (mending fences, cleaning barn, feeding animals, prepare wagon for father, etc.)
- 2 p.m. fetch horses from barn, harness, and lead them out to field and hitch to implement
- 7-8 p.m. finish work (depending on amount of work to be done)
- unhitch horses and lead them back to barn where remove harness, then feed and water
- wash-up, supper at house
- after dinner change bedding for horses, water and feed for night
- 9 p.m. retire for night

Summer

(Haying and summer fallowing same as above with following modifications)

Figure 33: Peter Salahub and his sons at his Lac La Biche farm, circa 1938. (Peter Salahub Collection, uncatalogued photograph.)

- start work 8-11 a.m. depending on dryness of hay
- 12-1 p.m. stop working
- unhitch horses in field and lead them back to barn where remove harness, feed, water and allow to rest
- lunch at house, then see to general chores
- 3-4 p.m. or 5-7 p.m. depending on heat of day fetch horses from barn, harness, and lead them out to field, hitch to implement and start working
- work until evening (8-10 p.m. depending on work)

(Harvest: same as Spring with following modifications)

- start work 8-11 a.m. depending on dryness of grain
- 4 p.m. stop work in field to eat lunch (pryvechirok)brought to him by sister
- 4:15 p.m. start work again
- 10-11 p.m. stop work, unhitch implement, lead horses back to barn, remove harness, water, feed, change bedding

Fall

(Cultivation: same as Spring)

(Threshing: as follows)

- rise at 4 a.m.
- tend to horses, feed and water
- breakfast at house
- 6-7 a.m. fetch horses from barn and harness, hitch to hay rack
- drive wagon out to field with other farmers and start collecting, hauling stooks
- work entire day either hauling or pitching stooks (as needed)
- 12 p.m. break for lunch, horses unhitched, lead back to barn, remove harness, water, feed. Men eat in house
- 1 p.m. Horses harnessed, lead out to field, hitch, start work

Figure 34: Threshing on the Salahubs' Lac La Biche farm, circa 1939. Note that the Salahubs threshed in essentially the same manner in 1939 as they did on their Smoky Lake farm in 1928, a full decade earlier. (Rose Bronson Collection, uncatalogued photograph.)

- 4 p.m. short break for lunch (pryvechirok); food brought out, men eat in field
- work until dusk, unhitch horses, lead back to barn, remove harness, water, feed, change bedding for night
- 11 p.m-12 a.m. retire for night

Winter

- 7-9 a.m. rise (depending on work planned for day)
- 9 a.m.-12 p.m. tend to horses, chores, pick up straw at pile for barn, haul grain, go to town if necessary
- (if wood to be hauled set out in early a.m. to do it)
- 12 p.m. lunch
- 1-6 p.m. tend to horses, chores
- 6 p.m. supper
- 6-9 p.m. tend to horses, chores
- 9 p.m. retire for night

B. Gregorii Salahub[2]

Spring

- rise at 6 a.m.
- breakfast
- light chores (occasionally ride the plow once Peter had set it up)
- 12 p.m. lunch
- light chores (occasionally drive to town once Peter hitched wagon)
- 7 p.m. supper
- 9 p.m. retire for night

Summer

(Same as Spring)

- occasionally some stooking in morning

Fall

(Same as Spring)

Winter

- rise at 9-10 a.m.
- sit around house, maybe do light chores in barn
- 12 p.m. lunch
- 6 p.m. supper
- 9 p.m. retire for night

C. Nick Salahub[3]

Spring

- rise at 7 a.m., breakfast, some chores
- walk to school
- 4 p.m. return home
- help in garden, general chores
- 6 p.m. supper
- homework, general chores
- 9 p.m. retire for night

Summer

- rise at 7 a.m., breakfast
- general chores, accompany brother or father to town
- 12 p.m. lunch
- general chores
- 6 p.m. supper

- general chores
- 11 p.m. retire for night

(Harvest: same as Spring with following modifications)

- 4 p.m. return from school, eat lunch (pryvechirok) in field
- stook
- 8-9 p.m. stop work for supper
- general chores
- 10-11 p.m. retire for night

Fall and Winter

(Same as Spring with following modifications)

- 4 p.m. carry food out to threshing gang
- general chores only before supper in winter

D. Nastasia Salahub[4] (Garden work only)

Spring, Summer

- rise at 5 a.m.
- prepare breakfast, serve, clean-up
- housework, chores, possibly garden work
- 10 a.m. prepare lunch
- 12 p.m. lunch served, clean-up
- 2 p.m. housework, chores, possibly garden work
- 4 p.m. prepare supper
- 6 p.m. supper served, clean-up
- 9 p.m. retire for night

Figure 35: Nastasia Salahub (right) and friend, circa 1940. (Peter Salahub Collection, uncatalogued photograph.)

E. Rose Salahub[5] (Related work only)

Spring

- rise at 6 a.m.
- breakfast and chores then walk to school
- 4 p.m. return from school, garden work, chores
- 6 p.m. supper, homework
- 9 p.m. retire for night

Summer

(Same as Spring with following modifications)

- garden work before lunch and before supper

(Harvest: same as Spring with following modifications)

- 4 p.m. carry lunch (pryvechirok) out to Peter and Nick in field

Fall

(Same as Spring with following modifications)

- 4 p.m. carry food out to threshing gang in field

ENDNOTES

CHAPTER III:

Daily Schedules

1. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.
2. Ibid.
3. Interview with Nick Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.
4. Unrecorded Interview with Rose Bronson, Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.
5. Ibid.

CHAPTER IV:

Conclusion

CHAPTER IV:

Conclusion

The narrative history of the Chernochan machine shed during the period 1925-28 is a varied one. The machine shed was used by the Salahub family who lived on the farm from 1923-28. The Salahubs rented the farm from Kosma Chernochan and this fact appears to have greatly influenced their attitude toward the farm. Their son, Peter, who headed field work on the farm, was only able to seed wheat with a small portion of rye on the two quarters rented by the Salahubs: SE 33-59-17 and SW 34-59-17. This was the landlord's wish and Peter had to abide by it.[1]

Because of Gregorii Salahub's poor state of health during the late twenties, the burden of responsibility for the farm fell on Peter's shoulders. He was the oldest boy living on the farm and did everything from working the land to cleaning the barn. One-man farm operations were not uncommon on prairie farms, but Peter's youth, coupled with the fact that he laboured basically as a tenant, probably influenced his approach to farming.[2] Although he was a methodical and conscientious farmer, Peter was not as enterprising or innovative in his farming techniques as he might have been had he been working his own land, or that of his family.

Peter's personal habits were far from fastidious, and although his maintenance of the farm machinery was adequate, his attitude seems to have been to perform general maintenance only "as needed." Whereas, other farmers in the sample group, the Slemkos, Batemans, Stones and even the Elaschuks (the poorest family) showed some measure of pride in their operations, Peter's approach to the farm was designed to sustain a certain acceptable level of farming.[3] Again, he was impeded in this regard. He could not incorporate simple crop rotation methods (since

Kosma insisted only on wheat) let alone introduce soil-improving crops such as alfalfa, ensilage or root crops. He was not, however, even aware in the late twenties of the benefits of these crops and was not able to expand his knowledge of agricultural advances since he read neither the Ukrainian nor English-language agricultural press.[4]

The tillage and cultivation methods employed by Peter, particularly in summer fallow work, were adequate but could have been improved upon.[5] Unlike Vasyl Slemko, Peter disked, for example, without a clearly formulated objective in disking. He disked when he had time to and as much as he had time for. Here, however, Peter was constrained once again in that he alone worked the entire farm, whereas Vasyl worked together with his father and owned a number of his own implements, such as a plow, disk and binder. This too could be viewed a lack of initiative on Peter's part. He was Vasyl's peer and came from a similar background, and presumably could have applied himself in similar ways.

Aside from these subjective observations of Peter Salahub, it can be said that the Salahub farm was very much a product of its environment. In terms of farming techniques, the Salahubs had much in common with other members of the sample group, and indeed with Alberta and prairie farmers as a whole. Their use of horse-drawn machinery, choice of vehicles, social habits, and gardening work were certainly all consistent with prairie farming life in the twenties. As prairie farmers they were subject to the same vagrancies (both natural, such as harsh climatic conditions, and artificial, such as fluctuating grain prices) as other farmers, and variously suffered and benefited from these.

It is important to point out that the farming techniques employed by the Salahubs were almost wholly "western Canadian" in nature. The methods employed at the turn of the century in Bukovyna, or elsewhere in Western Ukraine, were completely obsolete in the new land, and by the 1920s were only a memory to Nastasia and Gregorii. The farm garden, however, was maintained in a similar manner to gardens in Ukraine. It may have been much larger but grew among other vegetables, large quantities of beets, cabbage, garlic and potatoes - all of them integral

to traditional Ukrainian culinary habits.[6] Additionally, the Salahubs planted hemp (konopli) which was used to produce fibre and oil in Ukraine.[7]

In summarizing, the narrative history of the Chernochan machine shed has been determined by a number of factors. The first of these was the overriding authority of Kosma Chernochan, who decided which crops would be sown on his land. The second factor was the poor health of Gregorii Salahub, which led him to depend solely on his son Peter to work the farm. The third was Peter's youth and seeming lack of wholehearted commitment toward the farm. These three factors combined to determine the nature and quality of farming on the Salahub farm. The application of farming techniques, their purpose and success on prairie farms in general, and on the Salahub farm in particular, have formed the substance of this report.

ENDNOTES

CHAPTER IV:

Conclusion

1. Interview with Peter Salahub, Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.

2. This opinion is based on comments made by Peter Salahub in the course of an interview conducted May 10, 1984 with the auther.

3. Peter Salahub repeated the "as needed" phrase continually in reference to farm work. This seemed to be his main gauge for work required.

4. Since Peter essentially replaced his father in the running of the farm, it would seem that the onus was on him to apply the best methods in operating the farm. He underscored the fact that he made decisions, but these decisions do not appear to have been very progressive in nature.

5. Vasyl Slemko cultivated summer fallow with great care, attempting to disk land at least three times in the course of one summer. Peter's approach, on the other hand, seems to have lacked a clear objective - he disked as much as he had time for, not as much as was necessary or even advisable.

6. The Salahubs planted a large patch of cabbage in alternate years.

7. D. Kvitkovsky, T. Bryndzan and A. Zhukovsky, Bukovyna: ii Mynule i Suchasne (Paris: Zelena Bukovyna, 1956), p. 60.

APPENDIX A:
Glossary of Ukrainian Terms

Glossary of Ukrainian Terms

bainder*	binder
bóga*	buggy
borona	smoothing harrow
boronuvaly	harrowed
borozny	furrows
brusy	whetstones
brusyk	sharpening stone
bulba	potatoes
Chervona Vusata	Red Fife
dubeltovyi pluh*	gang plow
dyskuvaly*	(they) disked
dysky*	disk harrow
formalina	formalin
furmanka	four-wheel cart
gryndzholy	decorative sleighs
herlyky	hayracks
hnii	manure
horod	garden
hospodar(ka)	farmer
hospodari	farmers
hospodarski dvory	farmyards
hrabarka	hay rake
hrabka	cradle
hrechka	buckwheat
iachmin	barley
iare zhyto	spring rye
khram	religious festivity

khúra	four-wheel cart
klúnia	storehouse
kolishnýtsia	harrow cart
kóni	horses
koniúshnia	clover
konópli	hemp
kópy	60-sheave stook
kopýtsi	haycocks
kosá	scythe
kosárka	mower
kosovýtsia	haying
kukurúdza	corn
kulésha	boiled cornflour
lantsiúh	chain
lis	forest
lon	flax
lopáta	shovel
mamalýga	gruel
mastýlo	grease
mishký	sacks
mishók	sack
mlýna	fanning mill
molotárka	threshing machine
molotýly	threshed
motýka-ruhách̀ka	hoe
níuty	rivets
oborohy	haystacks
oliiárka	oil can
órania	plowing
ostrovienýtsi	hay-drying apparatus
oves	oats
pakuváty*	pack
paranýna	summer fallow land
párubok	young man

pasóvyshche	pasture land
pérsha skýba	first furrow
polúkipky	30-sheave stook
pódushka	sweat pad
polotnó*	canvas (binder)
pryvechírok	late afternoon lunch
pshenýtsia	wheat
rálo	mattock
ruchnýi pluh	walking plow
sány	sleigh
sápa	hoe
sapáchka	hoe
serp	sickle
shmir	grease
shnur	twine
shópa	machine shed
shpitliar	granary
shrúby	machine bolts
siiania	seeding
sínnyky	haystacks
sinozháty	meadow land
siváka	sack (seeding)
siválka	seed drill
sivárka	seed drill
skladenets	small segment of land
snopý	sheaves
soniashnyky	sunflowers
stóhy	haystacks
stukuvánnia*	stooking
supriáha	draft animals
térnia	bramble twig harrow
tik	flat surface used for threshing
trétyi búshel*	"third bushel basis"
úbrannia	suit of clothing

upriazh	harness
vertannia	small segment of land
vivtsiuha	wild oats
viz	wagon
volochinnia	harrowing
volochyly	harrowed
volochyv	"(he) harrowed"
vozy	carts
vyla	fork
vylky	forks
zahony	fields
zaoriuvania	start of plowing
zhatka	binder
zhnyvarka	binder

* denotes dialectal terms
indigenous to east central Alberta

APPENDIX B:

Farmstead Description Matrix

Land Cultivation Matrix

Crop Production Matrix

Farmstead Description		SALAHUB	ELASCHUK	SLEMKO	BATEMAN	STONE
LANDHOLDING	LOCATION	SMOKY LAKE	SMOKY LAKE	SMOKY LAKE	CASTOR	PIGEON VALLEY
	SIZE (ACRES)	320	160	160	320	320
	OWNED/RENTED	RENTED	OWNED	OWNED	OWNED	OWNED
TYPE OF FARM	MIXED	MIXED	MIXED	MIXED	MIXED	MIXED
	GRAIN INTENSIVE	—	—	—	—	—
LAND USE	IMPROVED LAND (ACRES)	220	65	140	160	180
	CROPS: WHEAT	175	20	55	100	100
	OATS	—	30	30	40	50
	BARLEY	—	10	20	20	30
	RYE	45	5	—	—	—
	OTHER	—	—	—	—	—
GARDEN	COMMERCIAL/PERSONAL	PERSONAL	PERSONAL	PERSONAL	PERSONAL	PERSONAL
	SIZE (ACRES)	½	¼	¼	½	½
	TYPE	VEGETABLE	VEGETABLE	VEGETABLE	VEGETABLE	VEGETABLE
MACHINERY	*FULL COMPLEMENT	FULL COMPLEMENT	FULL COMPLEMENT	FULL COMPLEMENT	FULL COMPLEMENT	FULL COMPLEMENT
	ADDITIONAL	NONE	NONE	2 EACH OF	MANURE SPREADER	NONE
				PLOW, DISC, BINDER	HAY LOADER (DOMESTIC)	
	SHELTER	MACHINE SHED	NONE	MACHINE SHED	NONE	LEAN-TO SHED
VEHICLES	TYPE (No.)	WAGON (1)	DEMOCRAT (1) WAGON (1)	DEMOCRAT (1) WAGON (2)	DEMOCRAT (1) BUGGY (1)	AUTOMOBILE (1) DEMOCRAT (1)
		SLEIGH (1)	SLEIGH (1)	SLEIGH (1)	WAGON (1) SLEIGH (1)	SLEIGH (1) WAGON (1)
HIRED HANDS	HOW MANY	NONE	NONE	NONE	1-2	NONE
	WHEN	—	—	—	SPRING - FALL	—
THRESHING	COMMERCIAL/PERSONAL	COMMERCIAL	COMMERCIAL	COMMERCIAL	COMMERCIAL	COMMERCIAL
	LABOUR - HIRED	—	—	—	HIRED	—
	EXCHANGED	EXCHANGED	EXCHANGED	EXCHANGED	—	EXCHANGED
HORSES	HOW MANY	8	5-8	20-30	8-10	10-12
	BREED OR WEIGHT (lbs):	1200-1400	800-1,000	CLYDESDALE 1,700	CAYUSE 1,200	CLYDESDALE 1,700

* FULL COMPLEMENT DENOTES THE FOLLOWING: GANG PLOW, WALKING PLOW, DISC HARROW, SMOOTHING HARROW, SEED DRILL, BINDER, MOWER + HAY RAKE

Farmstead Description Matrix

Drawing by Donna Pastyr

Land Cultivation	SALAHUB	ELASCHUK	SLEMKO	BATEMAN	STONE
CROP ROTATION: WAS IT DONE	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES
FIRST YEAR	—	WHEAT	WHEAT	WHEAT	WHEAT
SECOND YEAR	—	WHEAT	OATS	OATS	OATS
THIRD YEAR	—	OATS	BARLEY	BARLEY	BARLEY
FOURTH YEAR	—	BARLEY	SUMMER FALLOW	SUMMER FALLOW	SUMMER FALLOW
FIFTH YEAR	—	REPEAT	REPEAT	REPEAT	REPEAT
FORAGE CROPS: WERE THEY GROWN	LIMITED	LIMITED	LIMITED	CONSIDERABLE	CONSIDERABLE
HAY - TYPE	BROME GRASS	WILD HAY	ALFALFA/BROME	WILD HAY	WILD HAY
ACRES	15	SCATTERED	10 5	UPLAND 60 / SLOUGH 20	50
ENSILAGE - TYPE	—	—	—	SUNFLOWERS	—
ACRES	—	—	—	5	—
ROOTS - TYPE	—	—	—	MANGELS	—
ACRES	—	—	—	GARDEN PATCH ONLY.	—
SUMMER FALLOW: WAS IT USED	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES
LAND CULTIVATION	DISKING	—	DISKING	DISKING	DISKING
	HARROWING		HARROWING	HARROWING	HARROWING
MANURE	YES		YES	YES	YES
FERTILIZERS	NO		NO	NO	NO
PUBLICATIONS: LANGUAGE	UKRAINIAN	NONE	UKRAINIAN		
	ENGLISH		ENGLISH	ENGLISH	ENGLISH
SUBSCRIBE/PURCHASE	PURCHASE	—	SUBSCRIBE	SUBSCRIBE	PURCHASE
READ: REGULARLY				REGULARLY	
OCCASIONALLY	OCCASIONALLY		OCCASIONALLY		OCCASIONALLY
USED: CONSIDERABLY				CONSIDERABLY	
REGULARLY					
OCCASIONALLY					OCCASIONALLY
NEVER	NEVER.		NEVER		

Land Cultivation Matrix

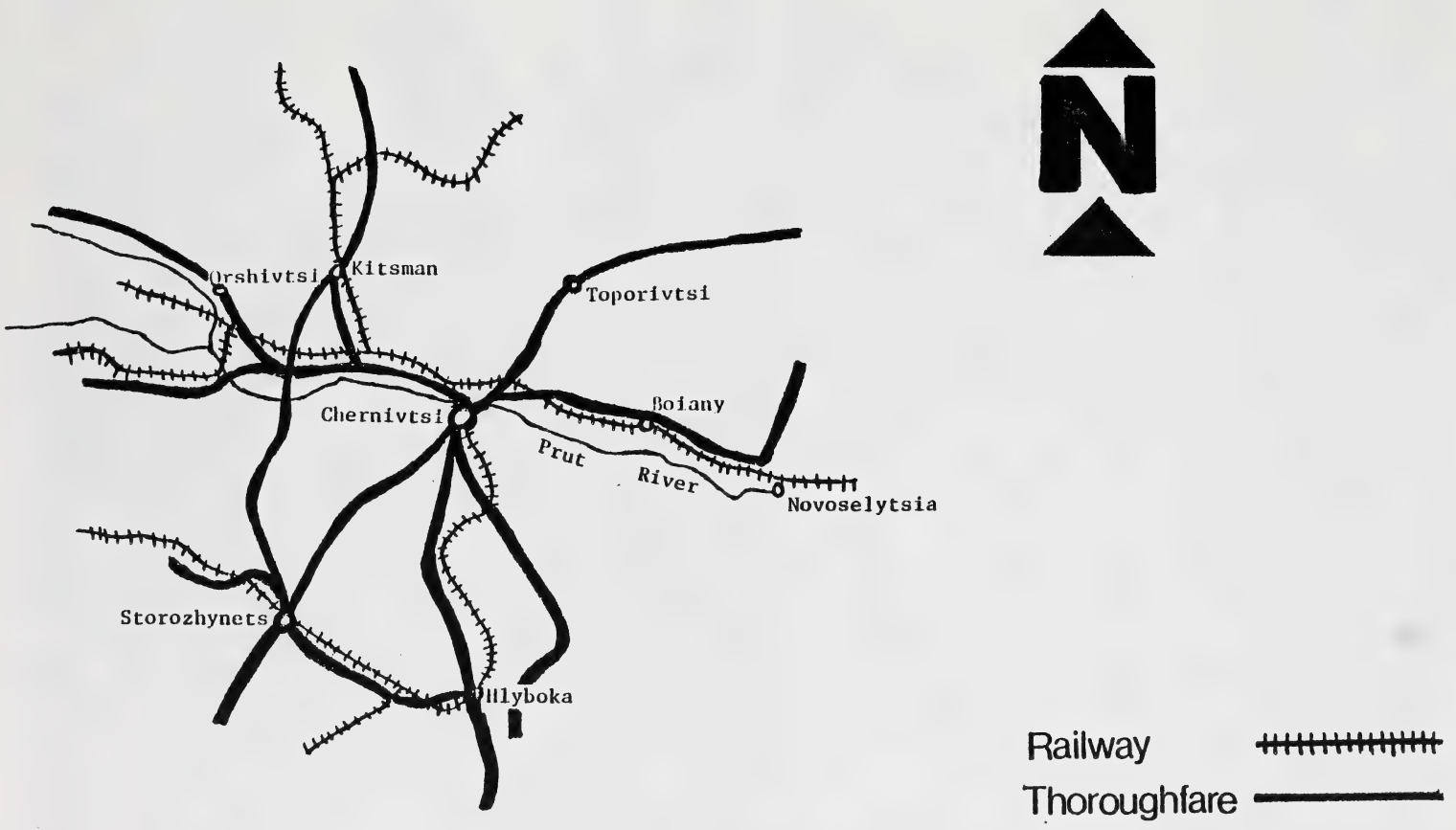
Drawing by Donna Pastyr

Crop Production		SALAHUB	ELASCHUK	SLEMKO	BRENNAN	SOULE
PLOWING	FALL AND/OR SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING
	IMPLEMENT USED	GANG PLOW	GANG PLOW	GANG PLOW	GANG PLOW	GANG PLOW
	HORSES	4	4	4	4	4
	HOW DEEP	6-7"	6"	4"	6"	6"
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	6/DAY	5/DAY	14/DAY TOTAL	5/DAY	5/DAY.
DISKING	FALL AND/OR SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING	FALL + SPRING
	IMPLEMENT USED	DISC HARROW	DISC HARROW	2 DISC HARROWS	DISC HARROWS	DISC HARROW
	HORSES	4	4	4	4	4
	HOW DEEP	6"	4"	3"	4"	4"
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	10/DAY	7/DAY	12-16 /DAY	7 DAY	7 DAY
HARROWING	FALL AND/OR SPRING	SPRING	SPRING	SPRING	SPRING	SPRING
	IMPLEMENT USED + HORSES	3 DIAMOND HARROW + 3 HORSES	3 DIAMOND HARROW + 3 HORSES	4-6 DIAMOND HARROW + 4-6 HORSES	3 DRAG HARROWS + 3 HORSES	3 DIAMOND HARROW + 3 HORSES
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	20-30 DAY	20/DAY	30-40 DAY	20-30 DAY	20 DAY
SEEDING	PREPARATION	FORMALIN	FORMALIN	FORMALIN	FORMALIN	FORMALIN
	IMPLEMENT USED + HORSES	SHOE DRILL 3 HORSES	SHOE DRILL 3 HORSES	SHOE DRILL 3 HORSES	DISC DRILL 3 HORSE	DISC DRILL 3 HORSES
	HOW DEEP	3"	2"	3"	2"	2"
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	14/DAY	14/DAY	14/DAY	15/DAY	15/DAY
PACKING	WAS IT DONE?	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
	IMPLEMENT USED	DRUM PACKER	LOG PACKER	LOG PACKER	DRUM PACKER	PACKER + HARROW
	HORSES	2 HORSES	2 HORSES	2 HORSES	2 HORSES	2 HORSES
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	40-60/DAY	25/DAY	20-30/DAY	25-50/DAY	20-30 DAY.
HARVEST	IMPLEMENT USED HORSES	BINDER 3 HORSES	BINDER 3 HORSES	BINDER 3 HORSES	BINDER 3 HORSES	BINDER 3 HORSES
	ACRES/DAY/RATE	20/DAY	10/DAY	10-15/DAY	10-15 /DAY	10-15/DAY
	STOOKING - COLLECTION SUBSEQUENT	SUBSEQUENT	COLLECTION	COLLECTION	COLLECTION	COLLECTION
THRESHING	STACK/STOOK	STOOK	STOOK/STACK	STOOK	STOOK	STOOK
	STRAW STORED	FIELD	FIELD	FIELD	FIELD	FIELD
	GRAIN TRANSPORTED TO	WAGON	SACKS	SACKS	WAGON	WAGON.
		PORTABLE GRANARY	PORTABLE GRANARY	PORTABLE GRANARY		

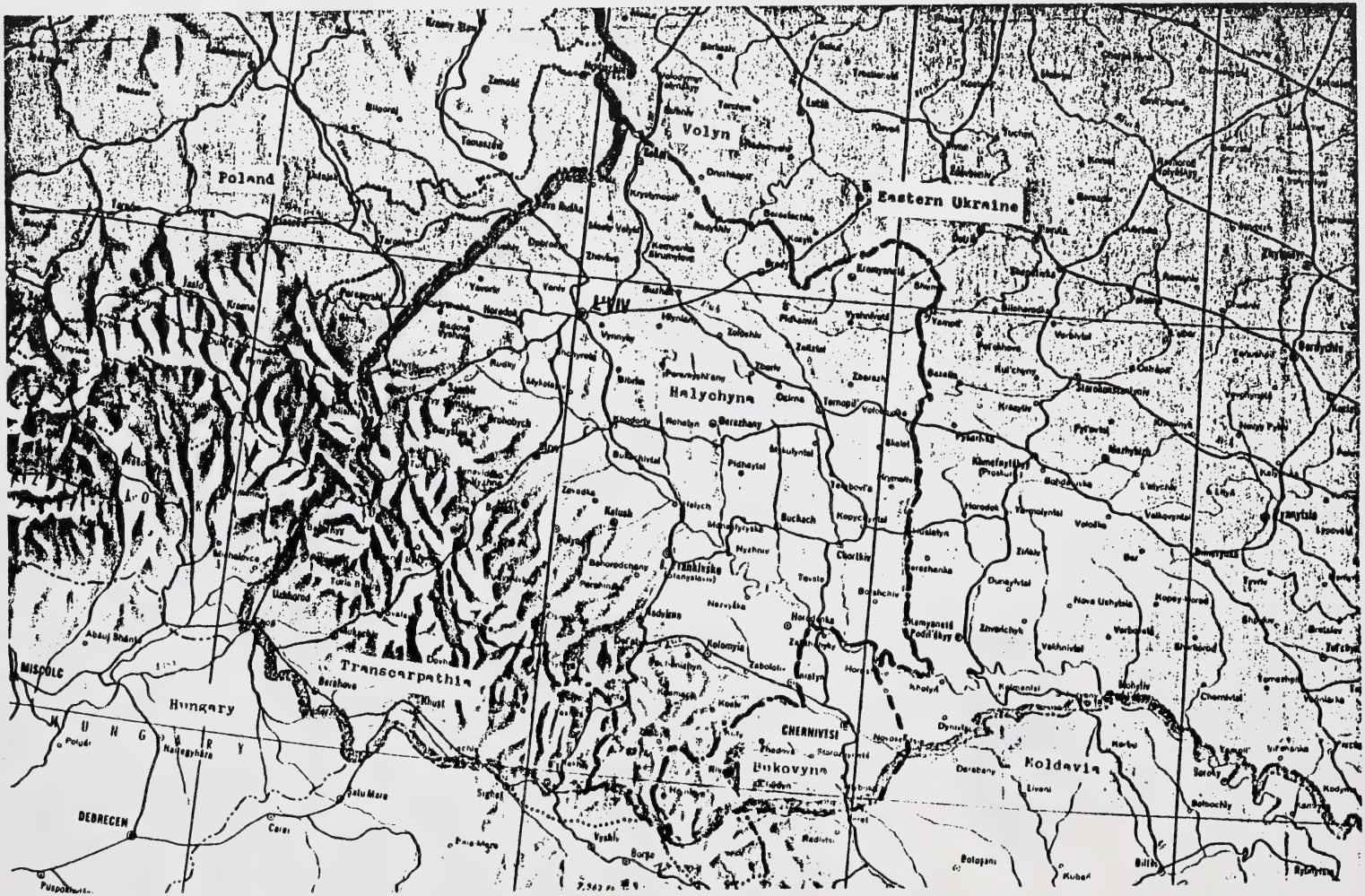
Crop Production Matrix

Drawing by Donna Pastyr

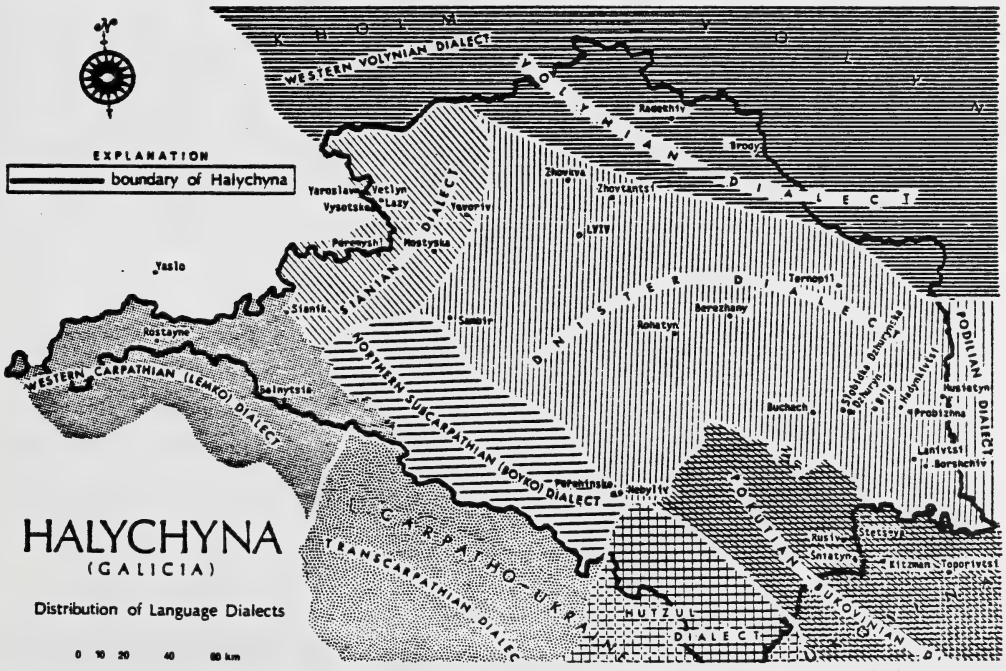
APPENDIX C:
Maps



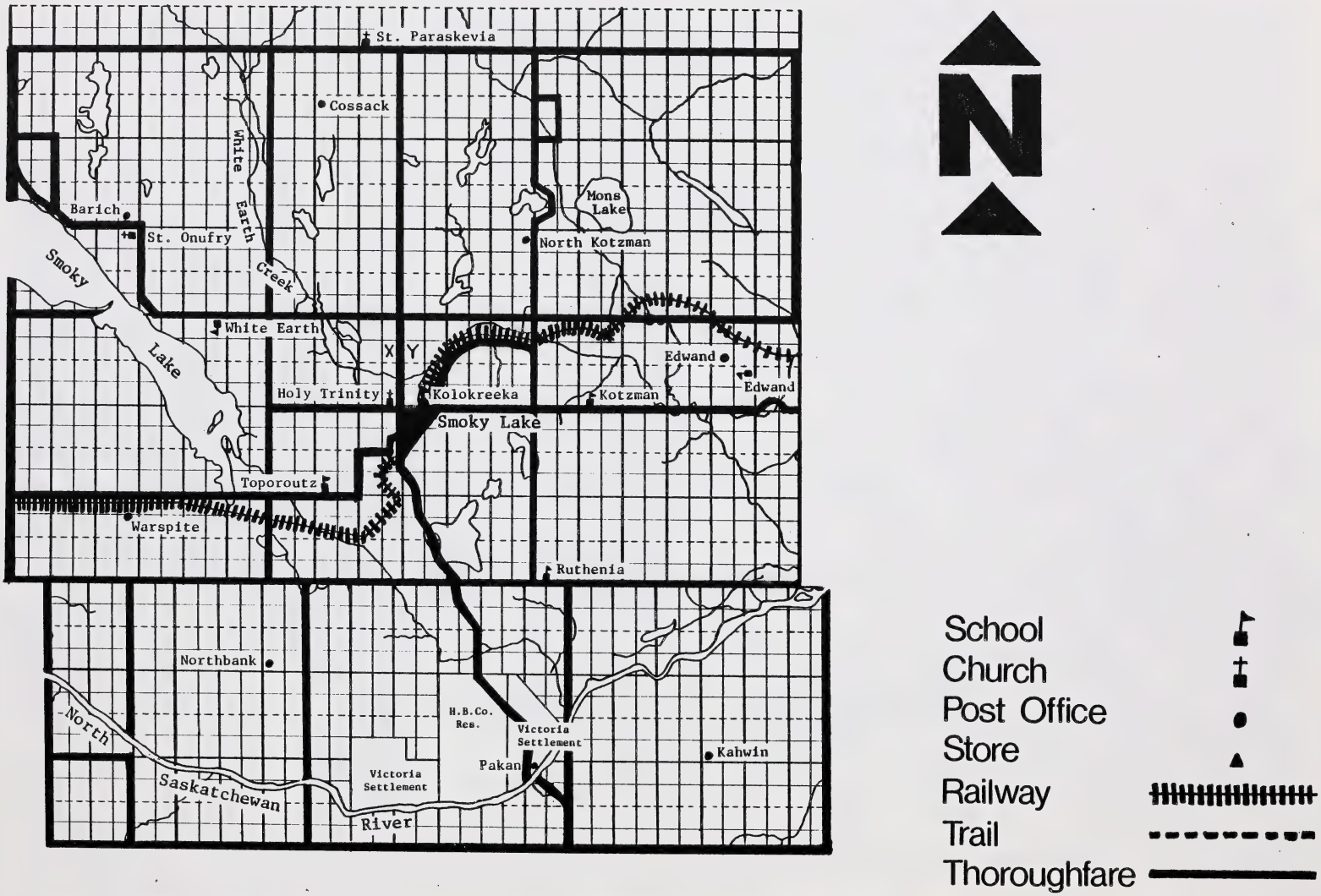
Map 1: Map of Bukovyna, circa 1905. (Source: Sonia Maryn, "Chernochan Machine Shed: Land Use and Structural History." Alberta Culture, Historic Sites Service, December 1983.)



Map 2: Map of regions in Western Ukraine. (Source: Sonia Maryn, "Chernochan Machine Shed: Land Use and Structural History." Alberta Culture, Historic Sites Service, December 1983.)



Map 3: Map of Galicia (Halychyna) adjoining Bukovyna. Top shows administrative divisions, circa 1900. Bottom shows dialectal divisions. (Sources: Vladimir J. Kaye, Dictionary of Ukrainian Canadian Biography and Alexander Royick, "Ukrainian Settlements in Alberta." Canadian Slavonic Papers 10 (1968): 280.



Map 4: Map of Smoky Lake region, circa 1929. "X" and "Y" denote SE33-59-17 and SW34-59-17, respectively. (Source: Sonia Maryn, "Chernochan Machine Shed: Land Use and Structural History." Alberta Culture, Historic Sites Service, December 1983.)

APPENDIX D:

Selected Papers and Correspondence of John M. Taylor and the Massey Harris Co. Ltd., 1922-1930.

THE DROUGHT AREA RELIEF ACT

OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER

320 LOUGHEED BUILDING

CALGARY, ALBERTA

Sept. 19, 1922.

Mr. J. Taylor,

New Brigden, Alberta.

Dear Sir:-

The Drought Area Relief Act — File No.

Re J. B. Code, — C. 188.

In accordance with the provisions of The Drought Area Relief Act, Mr. J. B. Code, of New Brigden, Alberta. has made application to the undersigned for an adjustment between himself and his creditors so as to provide for the satisfaction of his just claims without recourse to legal proceedings, as far as possible, and for that purpose an enquiry is being made into the validity of the claims against him, and his ability to discharge such claims either recently or in the future.

In the preliminary statement filed with the Commissioner you are shown as one of the creditors, and you are requested to kindly verify this by forwarding, at once, a complete statement of your account giving the following information;-

Detailed statement of account, showing any payments made thereon by debtor.

Length of time account has been outstanding.

Rate of interest charged on such account.

Amount of interest charged thereon.

Details of security, if any, held by you to protect such account.

The Act gives the Commissioner, or his Deputy, power to secure such information on oath, if it may be necessary to do this, but for the present it is thought that a certified statement of your account will be sufficient for the preliminary investigation.

As it is necessary to act promptly, in order that all cases shall have attention before this year's crop is marketed, you can assist materially if you will kindly see that the information asked for is supplied at once.

It is probable that you may have started legal proceedings against this debtor for the protection of your account. If this should be the case will you kindly issue instructions to have such action suspended and held in abeyance until such time as this investigation has been completed. Any action of this kind will, at the present time, only tend to complicate matters and add unnecessary expense to the account, without assisting the creditor in the Drought Relief area in securing priority over all other creditors.

The Government, by order in Council, can if it is found necessary to do so, issue a proclamation which will stay all proceedings in the district referred to. It is hoped that this prooeedure will not be required, and it will be possible to prevent same by securing the cooperation of all creditors along the lines referred to herein.

Your prompt attention to this request will be greatly appreciated.

Yours truly,

E. J. Fream

Commissioner.

LICENSED UNDER "The Manitoba Insurance Act" | LICENSED UNDER "The Saskatchewan Insurance Act" | REGISTERED UNDER "The Alberta Insurance Act" | LICENSED UNDER "The British Columbia Insurance Act"

No. 14882

THE WAWANESA MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY

HEAD OFFICE: WAWANESA, MANITOBA

In Consideration of the Stipulations and Agreements herein and in the Application herefor and a Premium of TWELVE 50/100 Dollars, does Insure J. M. Taylor., of New Brigden, Alberta, against direct Loss or Damage by Fire or Lightning to an amount not exceeding the sum set opposite the separate items below and not exceeding the sum of ONE THOUSAND Dollars, and never exceeding 75% of the actual cash value of the insured property at the time of the loss or damage, for a period of 36 months, commencing 12 o'clock noon June 2nd. 1923, and expiring at 12 o'clock noon June 2nd. 1926, on the following property:—

ITEM No. 1. $ ..... On the ..... story ..... Roofed Dwelling, size .....

ITEM No. 2. $ ..... On .....

ITEM No. 3. $ ..... On Household Furniture of every description, useful and ornamental, except Musical Instruments, but including Carpets, Bedding, Beds, Linen, Printed Books and Music, Pictures, Paintings, Engravings and their Frames, Plate and Platedware, China, Glassware, Tinware, Crockery, Utensils, Sewing Machine Cream Separator, Stoves, Family Wearing Apparel, Watches and Jewelry [in use] and Family Stores, [in case of loss, no one Book, Painting, Picture or Article of Jewelry to be valued at more than $5.00] unless specially insured, only while contained in the above described dwelling].

ITEM No. 4. $ ..... On Musical Instruments only while contained in the above described dwelling No. ....., on Piano $ ....., Organ $ ....., on ..... $ .....

ITEM No. 5. $ ..... On Barn, numbered 2 on Application, size

ITEM No. 6. $ ..... On Produce therein.

ITEM No. 7. $ ..... On Barn numbered 3 on Application, size

ITEM No. 8. $ ..... On Produce therein.

ITEM No. 9. $ ..... On Stable, numbered 4 on Application, size

ITEM No. 10. $ ..... On Produce and Stable Utensils therein.

ITEM No. 11. $ 500.00 On Granary No. 5/4 size 20x48

ITEM No. 12. $ 500.00 On Threshed Grain therein.

ITEM No. 13. $ ..... On Granary No. 6, size

ITEM No. 14. $ ..... On Threshed Grain therein.

ITEM No. 15. $ ..... On .....

ITEM No. 16. $ ..... On .....

ITEM No. 17. $ ..... On Farm Produce, Farming Implements, Vehicles, Harness, Robes, Stable Utensils, Tools and Grain Bags, [excluding Threshing Machines, Tractors and Motor Vehicles, Gasoline or Kerosine Engines or Attachments] in any of the foregoing buildings or elsewhere on the Farm, also Stacks of Hay and Feed within 75 feet of buildings, not including Portable Buildings.

ITEM No 18. $ ..... On Live Stock (not more than $150.00 on any one head of Horses or $45.00 on any other animal) but in no case to exceed 75 per cent. of the Actual Cash Value of any animal.

Total concurrent insurance including this Policy limited to an amount not exceeding 75% of the actual cash value of the property insured.

Owned by Assured and occupied by Same and situated on South east ¼ Section 10

Township 32 Range 4 West of the 4th. Meridian, as per Application on file at this Office, and which forms a part of this Insurance.

This insurance does not cover loss caused by Prairie, Stubble or Bush Fires, excepting the same be written on the face of this Policy. Should the within insured property be occupied by Tenant the Statutory Conditions of this Policy are to apply, in the event of a loss, as though it were occupied by the Owner.

This Policy is equivalent to a Certificate of Membership in The Wawanesa Mutual Insurance Company, and entitles the holder to his or her share of all privileges, powers and benefits arising thereunder. STEAM THRESHER PERMIT ON SECOND PAGE.

In Witness Whereof, we, the President and Secretary-Manager of the said Company have hereunto set our hands, and have caused the Common Seal of the said Company to be hereunto affixed.

Dated at Wawanesa this Twenty-first day of June in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and twenty-Three

Issued on Application submitted by W. C. Gillies.,

Authorized Resident Agent at Red Willow, Alberta.

Examined by 744.E.E.S.

S. H. Henderson
PRESIDENT.

A. W. Dawstone
SECRETARY and MANAGER.

MEMO OF ADJUSTMENT

Assured's Copy

Date of Storm July 9 1927, at 6 30 M. N.W. Claim No. 12490

Company Yorkshire Ins Co Policy No. 7197

Assured J. M. Taylor Address Hull Brigden

In accordance with Proofs of Loss of even date, LOSS AND DAMAGE incurred to crops described in above Policy by Hail has been determined, subject to all Policy Conditions, as follows:

Item												Amount
1.	100	% on	103	acres	Wheat	on NE	Sec. 10	T. 32	R. 11	W. 4	at $ 5 00 per acre.	$
1.	80	% on	27	acres	Do	on NE	Sec. 10	T. 32	R. 11	W. 4	at $ 5 00 per acre.	$
		% on		acres		on	Sec.	T.	R.	W.	at $ per acre.	$
2.	50	% on	20	acres	Wheat	on SE	Sec. 10	T. 32	R. 11	W. 4	at $ 5 00 per acre.	$
		% on		acres		on	Sec.	T.	R.	W.	at $ per acre.	$
		% on		acres		on	Sec.	T.	R.	W.	at $ per acre.	$
		% on		acres		on	Sec.	T.	R.	W.	at $ per acre.	$
		% on		acres		on	Sec.	T.	R.	W.	at $ per acre.	$

Total $

The Assured under above described Policy hereby agrees that said amount covers in full all loss and damage by Hail sustained previous to this adjustment.

Dated at Hull Brigden this 27 day of July, 1927, at 6 50 P M.

Witness O. H. Elliott

J. M. Taylor Insured

This form should be witnessed by a third party and duplicate left with Assured. Attach ORIGINAL to Proof of Loss and retain third copy for your records.

By O. H. Elliott Adjuster

ALBERTA CO-OPERATIVE WHEAT PRODUCERS, LIMITED

HEAD OFFICE:
226 LOUGHEED BLDG.
CALGARY, ALBERTA

Dear Sir: May 31, 1928

Below we give a statement of your Commercial and Elevator Reserve Accounts up to August 31st, 1927, covering deliveries made at the Station specified. Interest at 6% per annum has been added to your Elevator Reserve Account. No interest is allowed on Commercial Reserve Accounts, as the deductions are much smaller, and benefits derived therefrom are pooled.

Deductions for Reserves are made in order to provide funds for the business operations of the Association, and unexpended funds can only be paid out to the Members in the discretion of the Directors, or on dissolution of the Association.

Our Board of Directors have decided that interest on Elevator Reserves should be paid to the members in cases where it amounts to $1.00 or over. In cases where this interest amounts to less than $1.00, it will be added to the Grower's Reserve Account and carried forward to another year, as the cost of disbursing such a large number of small payments would not be justified.

A statement will be issued covering deliveries at each Station. Should it be necessary for you to write us, please mention your shipping point or points.

STATION	OTHER SHIPPING POINTS	COMMERCIAL RESERVE	ELEVATOR RESERVE
MONITOR.			
Balance as at August 31st, 1926.....		22.96	8.45
Less Interest paid May 31, 1927			
Interest on Elevator Reserve August 31, 1926 to August 31, 1927.....			.51
Deductions from deliveries to the 1926-27 Pool made at this Station. Commercial Reserve 1.333 cents per Bus. and Elevator Reserve 2c. per Bus.....Bushels.			
Balance August 31st, 1927.....		$ 22.96	$ 8.96

Yours very truly,
ALBERTA CO-OPERATIVE WHEAT PRODUCERS, LIMITED,

MT. J.M. TAYLOR.
MNEW BRIGDEN.
ALBERTA

R.D. Purdy
MANAGER.

FORM I-8

1024

THE DEPARTMENT OF TRADE & COMMERCE

No 355105

206

WESTERN DIVISION

OFFICE OF CHIEF INSPECTOR OF GRAIN

ED TO IS FULL TO PROPER
AMPLE FINAL INSPECTION TO
BE MADE AT UNLOADING

This Certifies that there was inspected ALBERTA CO-OPERATIVE WHEAT PRODUCERS LTD.
FOR ACCOUNT OF

CAR INITIAL	CAR NUMBER	STATION SHIPPED FROM	DATE AND PLACE INSPECTED	KIND OF GRAIN	GRADE	DOCKAGE
C. N.	402530	New Brigden	WINNIPEG SEP 27 1930	WHEAT	MANITOBA ONE (1) NORTHERN	1 1/2%

REMARKS

JAMES D. FRASER
CHIEF INSPECTOR,
WINNIPEG, MAN.

DEPY. INSPECTOR

Form E 20

ALBERTA POOL ELEVATORS, LIMITED

RECEIPT FOR STORAGE TICKETS

No 12161

STATION New Brigden DATE Sept 27 1930

RECEIVED FROM Jno Gryce

STORAGE TICKETS as listed below, for Wheat
(Kind of Grain)

Shipped in Car No. 402530 Billed to the Order of

Destination

TICKET NO.	BUSHELS	GRADE	TICKET NO.	BUSHELS	GRADE
298048	50 20		298124	93 20	
111	119 45		131	85 35	
18	94 5		143	94 10	
23	71 50		157	82 30	
32	113 25		321	101	
41	93 10		325	99 10	
49	74 20		328	86	
85	114		333	115 45	
90	83 40		334	78 25	
94	88 35		340	116 35	
99	77 20		340	90 40	
109	92 35		355	94 20	
116	86 5		364	55 5	
118	115		368	112 35	
	1283 35			1391 25	

An Advance of $ has been made against above tickets. 1336.25

ALBERTA POOL ELEVATORS LIMITED

Agent

HEAD OFFICE—TORONTO, CANADA

FACTORIES—TORONTO, WESTON, BRANTFORD AND WOODSTOCK, ONTARIO, CANADA

BY APPOINTMENT TO H.M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements

Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

Feb. 6, 1925.

Correction of Circular Letter
of Feb. 4th, 1925.

To Alberta Agents:

No. 5 BINDERS.

There are a few farmers in every district who appreciate good value when it is offered and who would be pleased to commit themselves to the purchase of goods which they know they will need sooner or later if you can only show them where they are saving or making a few dollars.

We have only eight of these older style Binders.

1, 6 ft.
7, 8 ft.

These are at Agencies and we are going to make dead certain that they are sold before harvest.

We prefer selling these at the Agencies where they are now located, but will move them where we receive an order accompanied by a Cash Deposit of at least Fifteen ($15.00) dollars.

These can be sold at a reduction in price from the No. 5 A Binders of similar size, of

Thirty-five ($35.00) dollars.

and in addition we will pay to the Agents effecting sales of these machines a Bonus Commission on each Binder of

Ten ($10.00) dollars.

We will allow interest at the rate of eight (8%) per-cent per annum on the amount of cash paid even to the extent of the full purchase price of the Binders from the date the cash is received at Calgary until August 1st, 1925.

Yours truly,

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, Ltd.

BY APPOINTMENT TO H.M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements
Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

March 5th, 1925.

To Local Agents;

Tractors

No. 2, 12-22 H.P. Tractors, both New and Second-hand are in stock at Calgary. As a reminder, we repeat a paragraph from our circular of Feb.10th.

"Cash Retail $900.00 with Cone Lugs, Selling Comm.$150.00 (No Collection Commission). Price is F.O.B.Calgary, weight 5500 lbs. For Angle Lugs instead of Cone Lugs, add $14.00. Commission will be payable in proportion as Cash is received for the Tractor."

No. 3, 15-28 H.P. Tractors, will be brought in to fill orders. You should therefore not figure on delivery until 3 weeks after date of Order.

Cash Retail $1375.00 with Cone Lugs, F.O.B.Calgary.

Commission $100.00 and Regular Collection Commission.

Weight, 6000 lbs.

For Angle Lugs instead of Cone Lugs add $14.00.

The Massey-Harris Tractors are sturdy, dependable, power plants which may be relied upon to develop their rated capacities both on Belt and Drawbar. Owners of them are getting real satisfaction year after year. A.1 Tractor Service (Expert work and Repairs) is available at Calgary.

Have you any Prospects for Tractor Sales? We will send an Expert to cooperate with you in trying to pry an order loose from any live prospect.

If you have no prospect now, can't you dig one up somewhere? Try!

Yours truly,

RWH/S

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, Limited.

HEAD OFFICE—TORONTO, CANADA

FACTORIES—TORONTO, WESTON, BRANTFORD AND WOODSTOCK, ONTARIO, CANADA

BY APPOINTMENT TO H. M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements

Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

March 16th, 1925.

To our Local Agents:-

We are sending you herewith a copy of a letter which is being mailed to every Drill Prospect of whom we have any knowledge.

During the next few days we want you to try to interview personally every Drill Prospect in your district, remembering that in selling New Drills you are accomplishing three good things -

(1) You do your customer a good turn by putting him in a position to get a better yield.

(2) You benefit the community through the aggregate of increased yields.

(3) You lay the foundation stone of your 1925 Commission Account.

We tried to avoid making the attached letter too long and therefore confined ourselves to a presentation of the advantage of a New Drill in Dollars and Cents. When talking to a Prospect you have more scope. Do not forget therefore to dwell upon the pleasure of working with a fine, brand new implement and upon the absence of the worry of wondering whether the Drill is doing a good job.

Are you really keen about this thing? If the roads are not fit for your car to navigate, are you keen enough to get hold of a horse and buggy to take your General Agent out to see these Prospects before they come to town and talk to your friend a few doors up the street? If you are keen to sell, you will cut away sales resistance as easily as the keen blade of your pocket knife cuts the plug of tobacco.

Yours truly,

RWH/MW

Massey-Harris Company, Limited.

BY APPOINTMENT TO H.M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements
Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

May 4th, 1925.

To our Local Agents:

The Summerfallow.

How many acres of summerfallow will there be in your district this summer? More than last year? Less than last year?

To the Implement Agent, the summerfallow involves a call for Plows, Drag Harrows, Disc Harrows and Cultivators. In another letter we have told you about the Cultivator situation and what provision we have made for the demand we look for at "Summerfallow Time."

In view of the unexpected circumstances we met this Spring we cannot but ask ourselves whether our provision in other lines is sufficient. What are you going to sell in the Plow and Harrow lines? We shall appreciate a letter from you about this matter. Better still, give us an indication of your requirements by sending in Signed Orders as far as possible ahead of the time the goods will be required.

Yours truly,

Massey-Harris Company, Limited.

R/H/IW

HEAD OFFICE—TORONTO, CANADA

FACTORIES—TORONTO, WESTON, BRANTFORD AND WOODSTOCK, ONTARIO, CANADA

f-3

BY APPOINTMENT TO H.M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements

Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

January 27th, 1926.

Grassy Lake Trading Co.,
Grassy Lake, Alta.

Dear Sir:-

Pardon a very direct, mutually important question! Why did you take on the Massey-Harris Contract?? You reply, "Why of course to provide a living for myself and dependent ones."

But, - let me ask you candidly, are you really taking your Agency seriously? Are you planning and working and putting "pep" into a real effort to get results - or - are you merely waiting around for something to happen. Make no mistake, he who fails to stir himself into making an active and determined effort will be left in the lurch. Only a hen can sit still and pay a dividend.

Check over carefully what you have accomplished this year to date. Are you proud of your record? Do you not share our keen disappointment at your evident failure to get across a real worthwhile bit of work?

Information reaching us leaves no doubt as to competitors being active. Advantage is being taken of the present extra favorable opportunities for getting new business. Be a "Top-Notcher", and not the "Under-Dog." Don't drift --- fight. Do not be satisfied with a small slice ... reach out and help yourself.

GET OUT ... not OUT OF the business, but OUT AFTER business. Make your Agency "hit on all four." Be an Order Getter. Carry your campaign right to the homes of your Farmers.

Yours truly,

Manager, Calgary Branch
Massey-Harris Company, Ltd.

AWT/MW

"SALES...MORE SALES ...STILL MORE SALES"

Get them early.

HEAD OFFICE—TORONTO, CANADA

BY APPOINTMENT
TO H. M. THE KING

MASSEY-HARRIS COMPANY, LIMITED

Makers of Farm Implements
Established 1847

CALGARY, ALTA.

Dear Sir:-

Would you buy a new Drill if you could pay for it in one Season?

The way in which your Seed is sown this Spring will have a very definite bearing on your Harvest. Two kernels dropped where there should be but one - small gaps where there should be seed - these failings will easily make a difference of three bushels to the acre at Harvest time. Three bushels of wheat at $1.50 means $4.50 per acre, or $225.00 per fifty acres. A Massey-Harris No. 11 Single Disc Drill will cost you $232.00.

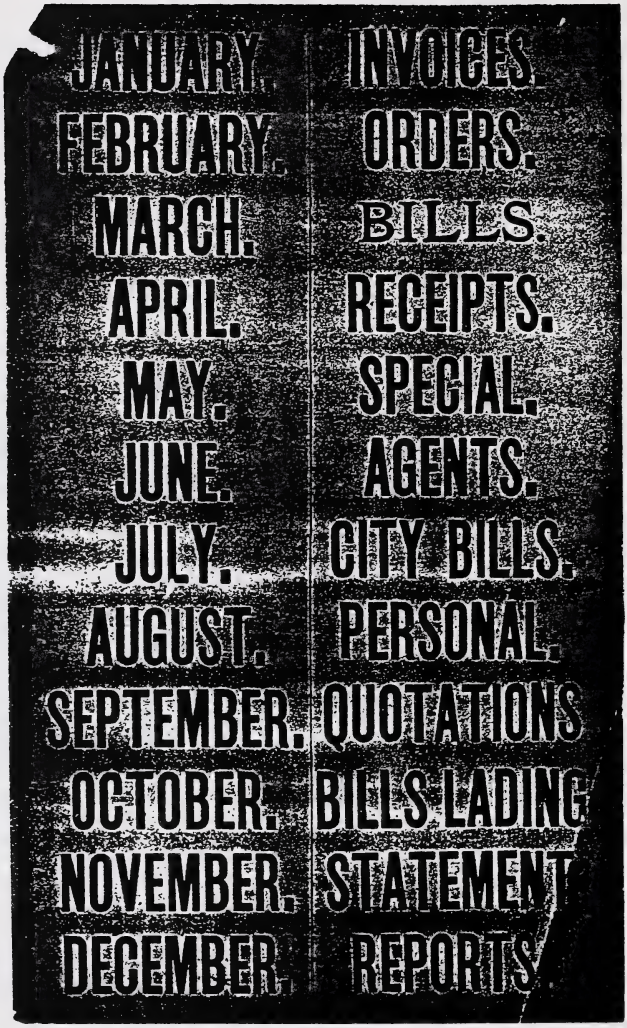
We are enclosing a folder which will tell you about the Massey-Harris Drill and we invite you to consider, in view of the present prices of grains, whether it will pay you to try to "get through with the old Drill."

Yours truly,

Massey-Harris Company, Limited.

Sales Department.

RWH/MW


JANUARY. INVOICES.
FEBRUARY. ORDERS.
MARCH. BILLS.
APRIL. RECEIPTS.
MAY. SPECIAL.
JUNE. AGENTS.
JULY. CITY BILLS.
AUGUST. PERSONAL.
SEPTEMBER. QUOTATIONS
OCTOBER. BILLS LADING
NOVEMBER. STATEMENT
DECEMBER. REPORTS.

APPENDIX E:

Ukrainian-Language Agricultural Almanacs Published in Western Canada During the 1920s.

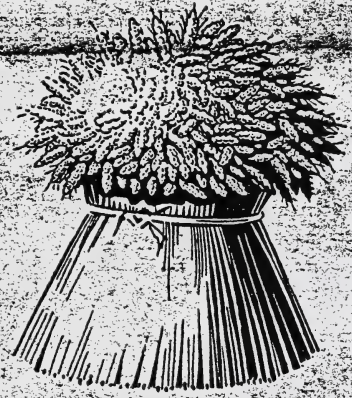
НАУКА

Про Управу Землї.

АБО

Що кождому чоловікови треба знати до успішного фармованя в Канадї?

Зладив після шкільних підручників.
М. М. БЕЛЕГАЙ.



ГОЛОВНИЙ СКЛАД
„PROSVITA„
BOX 22. EDMONTON, ALTA.

ЦІНА 1.00 ДОЛ.

В Укр. Видавничій Спілці „ПРОСВІТА„

Можна дістати отсї найновійші книжки:

"ДОМАШНИЙ ЛІКАР" або як лічити себе і других домашними ліками без помочи лікаря — — — — — — — — — — — — 0.75-ц.

"ВЕТЕРИНАР" або як лічити і плекати худобу і всю иньшу домашню скотину — 0.60-ц.

"УКР. АНГ. КУХАР" або як варити і печи по тутейшому і старокраєвому — — — $ 1.00

"З ЛАСКИ РОДИНИ" (в трох томах). Кождий том 50-ц. всї три в оправі — — — 1.75.

"НАУКА ПРО УПРАВУ ЗЕМЛІ" або як орати і сіяти після найновійших систем і т. д. В сій книжці є подано все про фармарство. Бога то ілюстрована — — — — — $1.00 ~~XXXXX~~.

"ЗАПОРОЖЕЦЬ ЗА ДУНАЄМ" Чудове представленє в 3-ох дїях з житя козаків — 0.25-ц.

"СТРАШНІ ТАЇНИ" Ілюстрована і найінтереснійша книжка на укр. мові. — — 0.75-ц.

Для книгарень даємо гарний опуст на сих книжках.

За сими книжками питайте у всїх книгарнях в Стейтах і Канадї.

ГОЛОВНИЙ СКЛАД СИХ КНИЖОК

„PROSVITA"

BOX 22. EDMONTON ALTA

КУПУЙТЕ! ЧИТАЙТЕ!
ВЕЛИКИЙ, БОГАТОІЛЮСТРОВАНИЙ

управі рижу. Вони і збирають його через те значно більше з морґа, як ми нашого збіжжа, бо пересічно по 40 до 50 сотнарів.

В Европі пробував садити збіжжа ще 20 років тому проф. Демчинський на Кавказі і мав неабиякі успіхи. Але він не вмів вихіснувати свойого досвіду. Використали його щойно в повоєнних часах проворні і практичні Німці. Вони навіть збудували осібні машини-сівалки, що садять збіжжа. Це збіжжа пізнійше просапують і збірають до 30-40 сотнарів зерна.

Але Німці не перестали на садженню. У двох останніх роках вони зачали пересаджувати збіжжа, як пересаджується розсаду капусти і досягнули незвичайних успіхів.

Перший Едвард Остгаус з Гогенгоф завів в себе на своїм господарстві цей новий спосіб управи збіжжа.

Він засіяв невеличкий загончик житом і пізніще, як воно виросло на 12-15 цм. заввишки, при помочі арештантів попересаджував поодинокі рослинки на новий загін в широкі рядки, один від одного на 20 цм., а в рядках одну рослину від одного на 20 цм. Таким чином посаджено на кожному квадратовому метрі по 15 рослин. До зими жито сильно розгалузилося і підросло на 20 цм. високо. Зимою

DOPL-

НОВЕ ПОЛЕ

КАНАДИЙСЬКИЙ АЛЬМАНАХ

50 ц.

ЗАХОДОМ ТОВАРИСТВА ОПІКИ НАД УКРАЇНСЬКИМИ ПЕРЕСЕЛЕНЦЯМИ ІМ. СВ. РАФАЇЛА В КАНАДІ

Вінніпег, Манітоба, Канада

1927

NEW FIELD

Canadian Almanac

EDITED BY THE ST. RAPHAEL'S UKRAINIAN IMMIGRANTS WELFARE ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA, CANADA

Українські Фармері!

Чи Ви дістаєте повну ціну за своє збіже ?

КОЛИ НІ

то посилайте своэ збіже впрост до:

ПРОГРЕСИВНОЇ ЗБІЖЕВОЇ СПІЛКИ

котра зорганізована майже зі самих фармерів на то, щоби пильнувати інтересу українських фармерів.

Спілка маэ свої власні елевейтори. Один офіс утримуэ в Форт Вільям, Онт. де зсипаэсь все збіже з цілої західної Канади. Там повинні всі українські фармері посилати своэ збіже на адрес:

PROGRESSIVE FARMER'S GRAIN CO. LIMITED
Grain Exchange Fort William Ont.

Висилаючи збіже впрост до Форт Вільям треба рівночасно повідомити головний офіс нашої Спілки Едмонтон Альберта.

Спілка наша інкорпорована під домініяльним актом в Оттаві з ограниченою порукою капіталу 50.000.00 долярів.

Спілка э забондована (гварантована) в уряді для веденя збіжевого бизнесу.

Коресподенція ведесь в рідній, українській мові. Пишіть по шипінг-біли, та по інформації до головного офісу на адрес: —

Progressive Farmer's Grain Co. LIMITED

Rudyk Block -- Edmonton, Alta

НОВА БІБЛІОТЕЧКА Ч. 4.

ВОЛ. НІКОЛЬСЬКИЙ

ЗАМІТКИ ПРО СІЛЬСЬКЕ ГОСПОДАРСТВО

УКРАЇНСЬКА НАКЛАДНЯ.
Київ-Ляйпціг
КОЛОМИЯ
Галицька Накладня.
WINNIPEG MAN.
Ukraiman Publischeng.

Живий Скот на Фармі

— I —

ЩО КОЖДОМУ ФАРМЕРОВИ ТРЕБА ЗНАТИ ДО УСПІШНОГО ФАРМЕРОВАННЯ В КАНАДІ?

47 ОБРАЗКІВ

ЦІНА 25 ЦЕНТІВ.

Головний Склад:

UKRAINSKA KNYHARNIA

660 Main St. Winnipeg, Man.

БЕЗ ЧОГО НЕ МОЖЕТЕ БУТИ?

Очевидна річ Ви зараз скажете, що без поживи, бо хто не їсть той не може працювати, ходити, поводити руками або иншими членами тіла. Без поживи отже чоловік чи й всяка тварина не може бути. — Рівнож не можете бути без води і без воздуха, бо не маючи їх подостатком — Ви можете умерти скоро хоч би мали як найбільше всякої поживи. — Се нам признаєте!

Але чи се все, що для життя Вашого є конечно потрібне?—Ні! Бож чоловік складається з душі і тіла. І коли тілови мусимо подавати поживу в роді хліба і т. и., так мусимо душі нашій подати потрібну поживу в роді читання ріжних книжок і часописей. Однак коротко сказавши чим є чистий воздух для Вашого тіла тим є для душі-ума Вашого добра українська часопись. Не можете жити без поживи і воздуха, не можете жити й

БЕЗ УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ ЧАСОПИСИ

але без такої якраз, якою власне є, як се вже знають ті люди, що читають через послідних трийцять літ, і яка називається

„КАНАДІЙСЬКИЙ ФАРМЕР"

Чому? — Просто тому, що вона подає кожного тижня новинки з цілого світа, вісти з рідного краю, містить гарні оповідання, поучаючі статті, ріжні дописи з українських кольоній в Канаді, пише про справи фармерські і робітничі, має навіть окрему сторінку для женщин, взагалі се часопись яку варто читати і яку повинен читати кождий Українець і Українка.

"Канадійський Фармер" виходить кожного тижня в середу на 12 сторін великого формату і коштує на рік: — в Канаді $1.50, поза Канадою $2.00. — Кожний передплатник, що надішле цілорічну передплату — дістає гарну премію.

CANADIAN FARMER

293-295 Market Ave., Winnipeg, Man.

Рік 1918 Число 14

Бібліотека „Канадийского Фармера"

І. Кулішер

НАУКА

про

народне господарство

Переклав Микола Залізняк

Ціна 50 ст.

Накладом „Канадийского Фармера"

Box Main str.

Winnipeg Manitoba

APPENDIX F:

Miscellaneous Material Appearing in Farmer's Advocate, Farmerske Zhyttia, Kanadiiskyi Farmer and Ukrainskyi Holos during the 1920s.

FARMER'S ADVOCATE AND HOME JOURNAL

Western Canada's Agricultural Weekly

REGISTERED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE COPYRIGHT ACT, 1875

VOL. LV Winnipeg, Canada, March 17, 1920 No. 1434

THE

NEW McLAUGHLIN LIGHT SIX

—a longer wheelbase

—an improved motor

—improved spring suspension

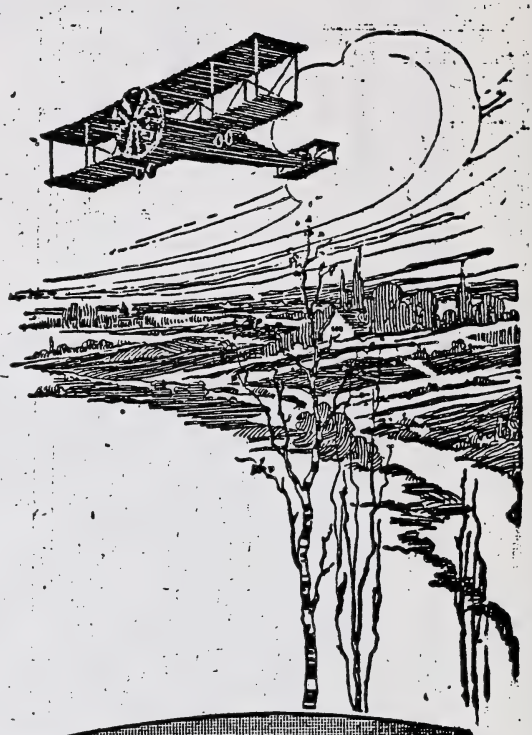
—superior finish and trim

added to all the good qualities of the previous McLaughlin Light Sixes, make the K-6-63 the best buy in its price class.

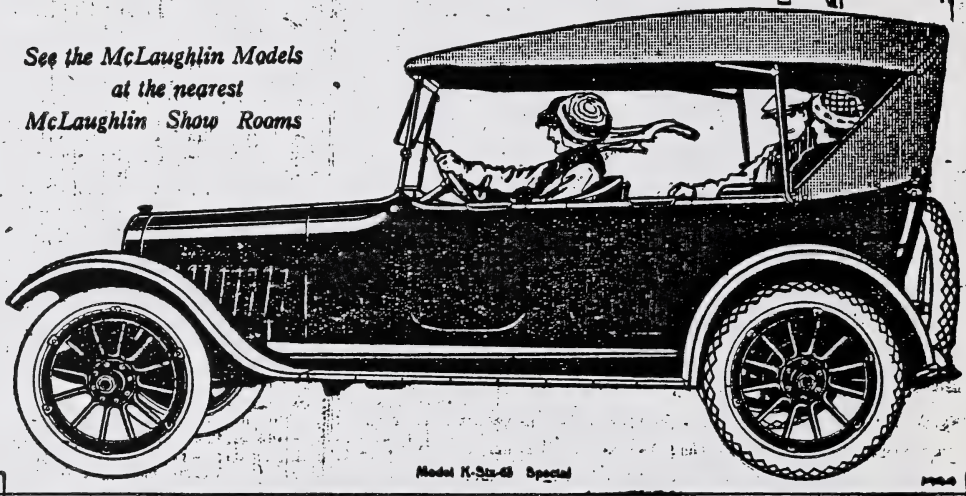
Powered with the famous McLaughlin 44 horse-power over-head valve motor. Owners report from 20 to 30 miles per gallon and from 8 to 12 thousand miles on tires.

McLAUGHLIN MOTOR CAR CO. LIMITED
OSHAWA, ONT.

[illegible] IN LEADING CITIES. DEALERS EVERYWHERE.



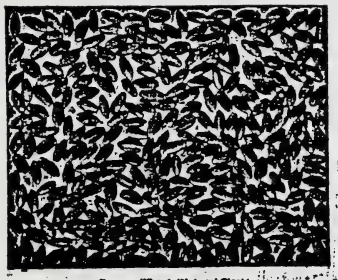
See the McLaughlin Models at the nearest McLaughlin Show Rooms



Model K-Six-63 Special

The McLAUGHLIN LIGHT SIX

Place Your Order Early for These Selected Stocks



Durum Wheat (Natural Size)

BEST WHEATS

DURUM
("Durum" means "Hard")

Has made a remarkable record of late years.
Resists drought, rust and smut in wonderful degree.
Usually ripens earlier than any other varieties in dry sections.
Always furnishes excellent hard grain without decrease in yield in driest seasons.
Specially suited to the West, pure, safe, big yield, fine milling quality.

"IT'S THE SURE GOOD CROP THAT COUNTS."

Our stock is specially selected, fine and clean. Price, $4.20 per bushel in 10 bushel lots and over. Bags 30 cents each.

NEW RUBY
(REGISTER No. 623)

A New Cross-bred Variety, produced by Dr. Chas. E. Saunders, Dominion Cerealist. Introduced in 1918.

A beautiful, red, beardless wheat.
Beats out frost and rust.
Ripens from seven to ten days before Marquis.
Will reduce the risk, attendant upon all crops while still standing, by from ten to fifteen days.
Kernels hard, yielding flour of excellent color and high quality. Straw of very fair length and strength. The grain threshes easily.
In 1918 New Ruby yielded 40 bushels per acre on summer-fallow, being the same yield as Marquis grown alongside. The yield in 1919 was 33 bushels to the acre— no Marquis to make comparison.
Stock Limited. Price: 2 bushels, $34.00. Finest cotton bags, 70 cents additional.

MARQUIS (Registered)

Price: FIRST GENERATION, $10.00 per bag of 2 bushels, bag included. (We can ship this stock direct from our grower in Central Saskatchewan, or Winnipeg, as desired.)
Price: SECOND GENERATION, $5.00 per bag of 2 bushels, bag included.

MARQUIS (Selected)

Good sample, fine for general crop. Price: $3.50 per bushel, in 10 bushel lots and over. Cotton bags additional at 70 cents each.

RED BOBS

Seager Wheeler's Best Wheat

Red Bobs ripens from 6 to 10 days earlier than Marquis.
Red Bobs yields higher than Marquis.
Red Bobs, as a milling wheat, is equal to Marquis or Red Fife.
Red Bobs reduces the danger from frost and rust.
Stock Limited. Price $11.00 per bushel in 10-bushel lots. Cotton Bags additional at 70 cents each.

DR. SAUNDERS' EARLY RED FIFE

Similar to old standard Red Fife, but has a larger kernel and ripens as early as Marquis. Price $3.50 per bushel, in 10 bushel lots and over. Finest cotton bags, 70 cents each additional.

RED FIFE (Registered)

Old Standard Variety

Price: FIRST AND SECOND GENERATION, $3.00 per bag, bag included.

KITCHENER

Seager Wheeler's Great Wheat

Price: $3.50 per bushel, in 10 bushel lots and over. Finest cotton bags, 70 cents additional.

OATS

AMERICAN BANNER (Registered)

Price: SECOND AND THIRD GENERATION, $5.00 per 100 pounds, bag included.

ABUNDANCE (Registered)

Price: FIRST GENERATION, $3.00 per 100 pounds, bag included.
Price: SECOND GENERATION, $4.50 per 100 pounds, bag included.

GOLD RAIN (Registered)

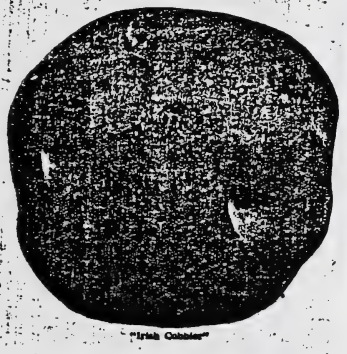
Price: FIRST GENERATION, $3.00 per 100 pounds, bag included.
Price: SECOND GENERATION, $4.50 per 100 pounds, bag included.

SEED POTATOES

Hand picked. Make a start with pure seed—it will pay.

Irish Cobbler Early Ohio
Early Bovee Epicure

Price: 5 bushels and over at $3.40 per bushel, bag included.



"Irish Cobbler"

Alfalfa, Sweet Clover, Brome, Western Rye, Timothy, Millet, Sunflower for Ensilage, Dwarf Essex Rape and Fodder Corn

WRITE FOR CATALOGUE

STEELE, BRIGGS SEED CO., Limited

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA

Plows Of National Reputation

U.G.G. La Crosse Plows that Stand Supreme by Comparative Test

Quality and Strength of Material—A larger proportion of High Carbon hardened steel used in their construction than in most other plows. The frames, axles and all working parts made of this durable metal.

Built Light in Weight without Weakening—The exclusive design and construction of La Crosse Plows permit of lighter weight than most other plows because of their floating beam and bottom construction. The wheels carry the weight.

For Lightness of Draft La Crosse Plows Lead the World—In dynamometer tests in actual work on the fields, La Crosse Plows have proven that they will turn a clean furrow, cover trash and pull from 50 to 500 pounds lighter than any other plow made of equal size.

La Crosse Plows Scour where others fail—This is due to the scientific design and construction of their bottoms.

The U.G.G. Unqualified Guarantee protects you on every purchase. Your money back if not satisfied.

U.G.G. La Crosse Extra Heavy

Brush Breakers

With or Without Fore Carriage

Can furnish same design in lighter weight

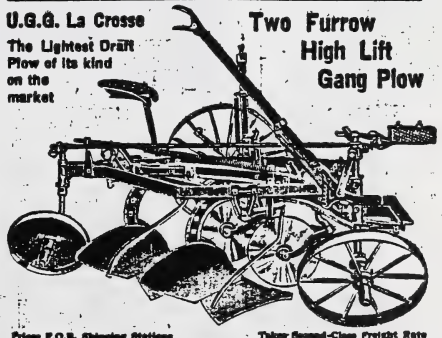
Prices F.O.B. Shipping Stations

Catalog No.	Description	Winnipeg	Regina or Saskatoon	Calgary or Edmonton
A-7	20-in. Heavy Brush Breaker, with strapped beam, forecarriage and standing colter only (no extra share). Weight 600 lbs.	107.10	109.70	111.30
A-6	14-in. Heavy Brush Breaker, with strapped beam, gauge wheel and standing colter only (no extra share). Weight 258 lbs.	51.95	53.10	53.75
A-130	Forecarriage for 16-in. Brush Breaker, similar to one shown on A-7. Weight 240 lbs.	31.50	32.55	33.20

U.G.G. La Crosse

The Lightest Draft Plow of its kind on the market

Two Furrow High Lift Gang Plow



Prices F.O.B. Shipping Stations Taken Second-Class Freight Rate

Catalog No.	Description	Winnipeg	Regina or Saskatoon	Calgary or Edmonton
A-17	12-in. Cast Plow, with heavy beam, 15-in. Rolling Colter, No. 11 Stubble bottoms, quick detachable 5-16 inch share, pole and yoke—no evener. Weight 823 lbs.	130.35	133.65	135.65
A-18	14-in. Gang Plow, with heavy beam, 15-in. Rolling Colter, No. 11 Stubble bottoms, quick detachable 5-16 inch share, pole and yoke—no evener. Weight 833 lbs.	132.80	136.15	138.20

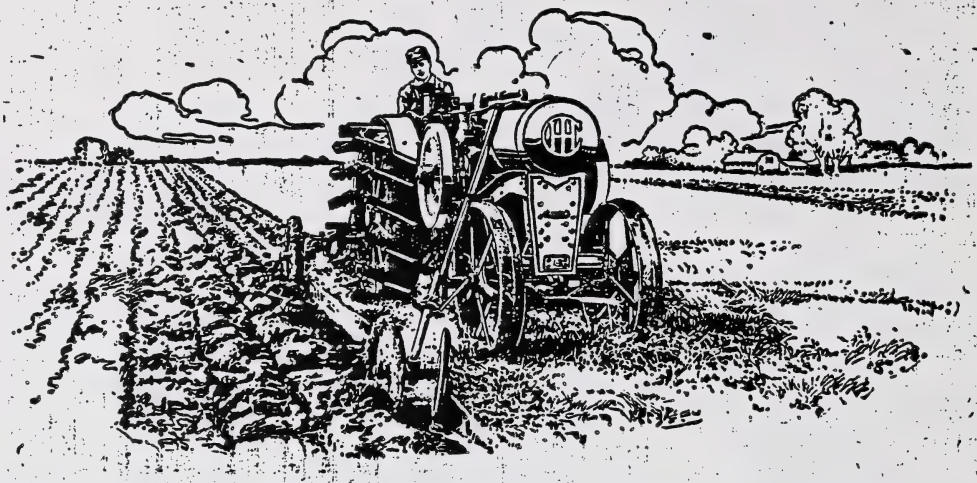
Write for a Book—Full of Plow Information

The U.G.G. 1920 Catalog illustrates and describes in detail a La Crosse Plow for every purpose. This book will give you much information on the Plow question that you should have before making a purchase. The book is free—write for it

UNITED GRAIN GROWERS

The Organized Farmer in Business

Winnipeg Regina Saskatoon Calgary Edmonton



The Sensible Leader of the 1920 Tractor Field

NOWADAYS the chug-chug of the farm tractor is heard in every corner of the land. Tractors are at work in the fields of many thousands of farms and if you look them over you will find them a mixed lot.

Tractor farming is still in its youth. Novelty is still in the surge toward power farming.

The impractical theorists are still in the ring, limping but not out of the running. Adventurers who swarmed into what they termed the "game" are still "playing." The hazards facing the farmer in search of reliable power are many.

In all this turmoil, one tractor like a steady star has lighted the way. That tractor bears the trusted name—**Titan 10-20.** It has led because it is the product of practical builders of good farm machines; because it is backed by many years of experience and unquestioned reputation.

Today **Titan 10-20** is the standard-setter among all tractors. During the past year it has been the topic of conversation on the tongues of farmers and tractor makers the nation over.

Selling at the popular new low prices **Titan 10-20** faced a sensational demand. A few months ago this desire for Titan ownership had flooded the factory with thousands of orders which could not be filled at once, though a new Titan was being turned out every few minutes.

Every effort is being directed to greater production and to continued Titan 10-20 pre-eminence during 1920. In view of manufacturing difficulties however, this is earnest advice to the intending purchaser:

Orders for Titan 10-20 — and also for International 15-30 — must be placed far in advance. No other course will assure delivery.

INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER COMPANY

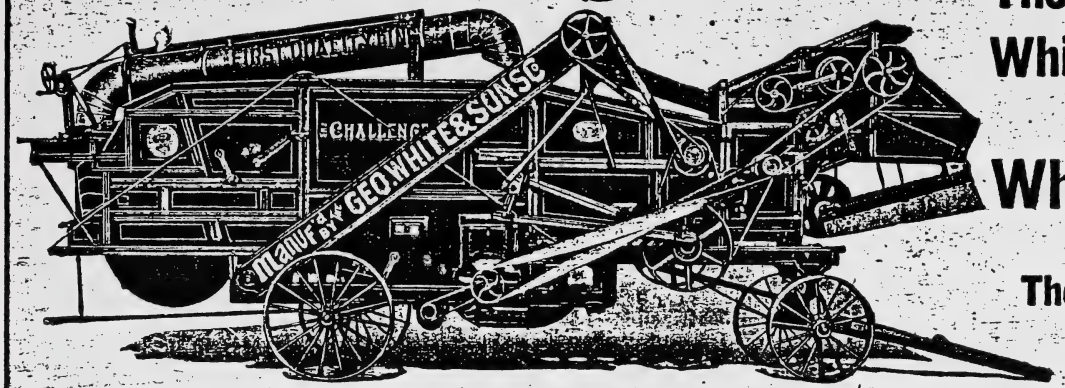
OF CANADA LTD.

WESTERN BRANCHES — BRANDON, WINNIPEG, MAN., CALGARY, EDMONTON, LETHBRIDGE, ALTA., N. BATTLEFORD, REGINA, SASKATOON, YORKTON, SASK.

EASTERN BRANCHES — HAMILTON, LONDON, OTTAWA, ONT., MONTREAL, QUEBEC, QUE., ST. JOHN, N.B.

Special 24x40 Challenge

SERVICE



The Purchasers of White Machinery BUY White Service

The Outfit that has made good

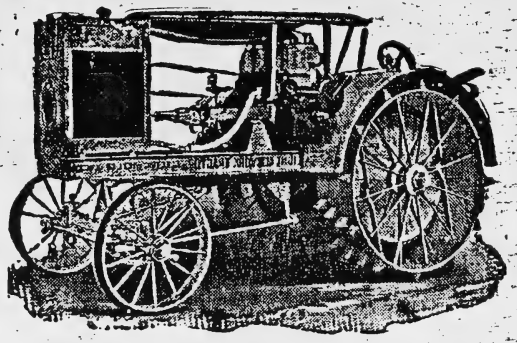
NOTE CAREFULLY

WE SELL ALL SIZES STEAM ENGINES AND SEPARATORS

ALSO FULL LINE OF THRESHERS SUPPLIES

GET OUR LIST OF REBUILT GOODS

QUALITY FIRST



WHITE ALL-WORK TRACTOR 14 x 28 H.P.

Fill Out this Coupon NOW

GEO. WHITE & SONS CO., LTD.
BRANDON, MAN.

Please send catalogue and full particulars of.....

.....

.....

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Name.....

Address.....Prov.....

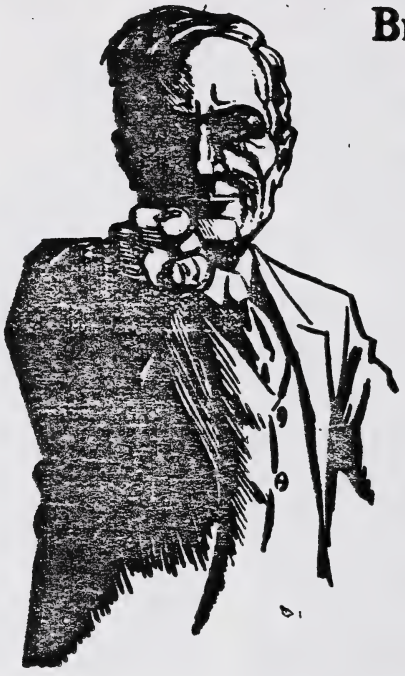
F A.

It will Bring Full Information

THE GEO. WHITE & SONS COMPANY, Ltd.

BRANDON, MAN.
MOOSE JAW, SASK.
SASKATOON, SASK.

Гей, Ви, Не-Пулеві Фармері!



Ви можете припинити великий упадок цін пшениці!

Упадок цін наступить лише через велику скількість пшениці поза пулом. Цьогорічні жнива дають спекулянтам так багато пшениці в руки, як вони мали перед існуванням пулу. Спекулянти продають мільони бушлів непулевої пшениці, заки вона зіжата. Через це ціна впадає.

Ви можете спинити цей упадок і обкроїти спекулянтів записавши своє збіжжя до пулу. Коли непулеві фармері позволюють спекулянтам продавати свою пшеницю на майбутню доставу (продавати наперед) так спекулянти зроблять гроші, а фармері зроблять довги. Коли непулеві фармері передадуть свою пшеницю до пулу, спекулянти не матимуть чим спекулювати, тоді фармер дістане і гроші, а це буде ліпше для всіх, лише не для спекулянтів.

Пул має успішний рекорд продажі через чотири роки

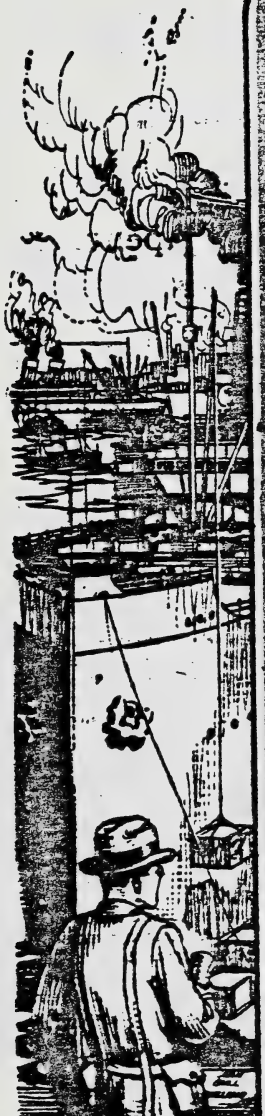
Рік збору	Віннінпегські опції	Високі	Низькі	Пулеві ціни
1924-25		$2.19	$1.22	$1.66
1925-26		1.66	1.16	1.46
1926-27		1.67	1.23	1.42
1927-28		1.60	1.17	1.40

Кінцевої доплати за 1927-28 ще не встановлено.

СВІТОВІ ОБСТАВИНИ ВКАЗУЮТЬ, ЩО ПШЕНИЦЯ НЕ ПОВИННА БУТИ $1.00 ЗА БУШЕЛЬ

Примушуйте спекулянтів платити —
Зашліть своє збіжжя до пулу!

Manitoba Wheat Pool



ЯКІСТЬ

Найбільше потрібна вимога від канадійських рільничих продуктів

КАНАДА продукує щорічно великі скількости пшениці, вівса, ячменню, масла, сира, солонини, воловини, яєць, яблок, картофель, насіння трави і насіння конічини, яких вона не може сама зконсумувати. Її натуральним місцем збуту для цих продуктів, є проте Велика Британія — одем з найбільше консумуючих країв на світі, з отвореним ринком.

Нещасливим трафом, майже кожний инший край з надвишкою спожи вчих продуктів, видається, що бажає вислати свою надвишку на цей старий ринок.

Второпність вспівубігаяняся на тім, нашім одинокім ринку, і енергія та недостаток средств наших вспівубігаючихся почаля самі натискати на Департамент Рільництва, якийсь час тому, але доперва в протязі послідних літ відкрито дійсний і одинокий спосіб, щоби розвязати проблему, або принайменше увести в діло. Цей Департамент є тепер тої гадки, як рівнож і більшість фармерів цього краю, що „грейдовання" наших рільничих продуктів є курсом і практикою, які ожидають нас, по борбі і запевнить нам належне нам місце на британськім ринку.

„ГРЕЙДОВАННЯ" означає класифікованя продуктів, без огляду чи є до вивозу, масло, сир, яйці, або щось иншого, після цього, що може бути назване загально „НАЙЛЇПШОЮ", „ДОБРОЮ", „ДОСТАТОЧНОЮ" і „ЛІХОЮ" якістю.

Хоряй доследно не годиться тих слів в описі грейдів (степенів) одно мало иншої то означає. Ціль, яку видає нам грейдованя є трояка:

(1) **ВИГОДА ЧА.** Коли продуцент бачить згадку якости свого продукту, дість заохочується до удержаннє цеї якости, если вона є „найлїпшою", або принаймнї якости, що не є конечне

(2) **ФЕЙР ПЛЕЙ** (Чиста гра). Коли продукти не грейдуються, гірші одиниці, задля рівних причин часто приносять стільки, що і решцого сорту, і тому затрачується предмет і користь за висилку певного сорту продукту на ринок, для того, хто на цім дійсно заслугує.

(3) **ОБЕЗПЕЧЕННЯ ТОРГОВЛЇ.** Продавець учитель цати довіря до продукту, який купує і буває з більшою сміливістю, знаючи до чого за собою гарантію грейдованя, і постоянно великий набувець обізнаний як цїнно виглядає найбучший продукт, або який час сили. Коротко сказавши, грейдованя приносить устаткня і заховок продуктом тої найлучшої цяну.

Канада продукує тепер свою обилиця, насіння трави, сіно, картофлї, яблока, яйця, масло, сир, фрукту і воскрет на солонину. Висилки у теперїшніх часах були корисні, а у деяких случаях цілковите знищенє, якщо того що состоять грейдованя є в участи, у деяких случаях, в протязі лише двох або трьох лет, і так:—

СИР—Грейдованя розпочалося 1 вересня 1923 Канадійський сир у повторенім ряді строгого цілого на конкурентів, на британськім ринку, так, що загально поступлено лише за сиром з Нової Зеландії. Цїлих канадійський сир покращення також цитками на фути Новозеландський Сир.

МАСЛО—Грейдованя розпочалося у тім самім часі, що і сира. Репутація нашого масла цілковита тим дійсно лучше цїнили. Цїлих канадійське масло, котрий не уважається найлучшим за ринку, стало конкурентом у цїнах і попиту на репутацію.

БЕКОН—Вчили два роки тому назад Департамент Рільництва рострівав грейдованя цілих беконів у найлїпших умовленнях і вдяк для тутейш. 90% прийшли цілковиті повідомлення за „найлучшу солонину з беконів з супроводженням за „другі сортів", як найбільш фактичні диференціальні класифікатори показали чтя у поступованню цілого на цих беконів і розницю найлїпших якостей.

Канадійська цілковитий споживач, яку ми його тепер називаємо від 10 до 14 мільйонів, на рівних 100 фунтів живого ваговика. Приблизно кількість з нього британських туристів поступно від 20 до 30 тисяч, коли і цїлих цих цих ц

ВЖЕ ВИЙШОВ

— ТА —

РОЗСИЛАЄТЬСЯ

Є ЦЕ НАЙБІЛЬШИЙ І НАЙКРАЩИЙ УКРАЇНСЬКИЙ РОБІТНИЧО-ФАРМЕРСЬКИЙ КАЛЄНДАР НА АМЕРИКАНСЬКОМУ КОНТИНЕНТІ. ВІН МАЄ 384 СТОРІН ДРУКУ Й 110 ІЛЮСТРАЦІЙ. ЗАМОВЛЯЙТЕ ЦЕЙ КАЛЄНАДР ТАКИ ЗАРАЗ.

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ЗАМОВЛЕННЯ РАЗОМ З ГРІШМИ ТАКИ ЗАРАЗ ЗАСИЛАЙТЕ НА АДРЕСУ:

Ukrainian Labor News

Cor. Pritchard and McGregor, Winnipeg, Man.

COCKSHUTT

Кінні ПЛУГИ Тракторові

ДО ОРАННЯ СТЕРНІ АБО ЦІЛИНИ
Плуг The Cockshutt Jewel Gang є плугом, що високо підноситься, цілковито автоматичний в своїм діланню і зроблений з достаточною силою для найтяжчих відносин орання. Основна плуга є добре вирівняна і сила тяжіння так, щоби робота йшла як найлегше.

Колеса на землі і в борозні плугом дуже гарно устроїти; полиці і леміші достроєні до найновішого взірця форми та якости.

„Jewel" Gang плуг, що високо підноситься

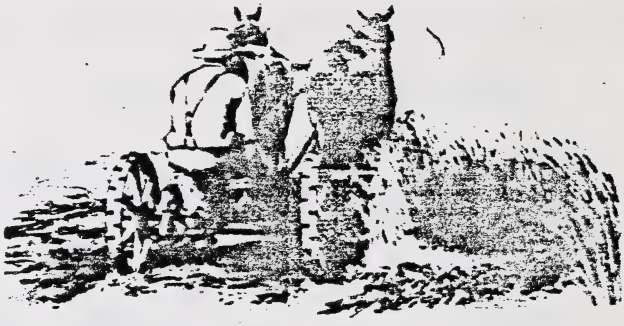
Ви всі Плуги Кокшат Тракторові Плуги є цінами та всіма відповідними для кождого трактора. Наші [illegible] спеціально зроблений для Тракторів Фордсон, мають прикмети, що роблять його найпопулярнійшим легким тракторовим плугом на ринку.

Зверніться в нашого найблизшого агента, щоби дав вам найточнійші [illegible]

Cockshutt Plow Dompany Limited

Winnipeg Regina Saskatoon Calgary Edmonton

„Знаряди Какшата роблять, що фармерство лучше поплачується".



МекКорміка-Дірінга
Знаряди до Сіна

Combined Side Rakes and Tedders - Loaders - High-Lift Mowers
Easy-Dump Rakes - Cushion Frame Tedders - High-Lift Stackers
Sweep Rakes

„МекКормік" і „Дірінг" були іменами добих знарядів до сіна та жнив через многі літа. Машини з такими іменами можна найти у шапах з фармерськими знарядами по цілім світі. Без сумніву такі машини маєте й ви на своїй фарми. Коли так, то знаєте, що значить назва МекКормік і Дірінг.

Коли потребуєте нових знарядів до сіна і машин до жнив, памятайте, що продукти МекКорміка-Дірінг є тепер лішні, чим коли були. Ваш місцевий агент МекКорміка-Дірінга покаже вам удосконалення, що помогає вам справитися зі збіжжями сіна та жнивами скоро й економічно. Шадіть працю і робіть лучшу роботу, покладаючись на МекКорміка-Дірінга знаряди до сіна та машини до жнив.

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Жниварки — Молотільні — Колоскові Молотільні.

Massey-Harris Сіварки сіють насіння добре.

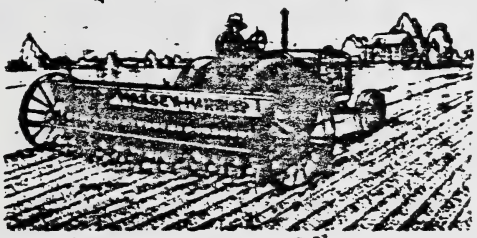
НАЙГЛАДША В РОБОТІ СІВАРКА ЯКУ MASSEY-HARRIS ДО ТЕПЕР ВИРОБИЛА.

Це є Massey-Harris No. 11 на 1928. Тріби заходять гладко й мило. Фідування обертається гладко й си точно. Гладкі валки не товчуть аю не ушкоджують насіння. Насіння висувається гладко в дід середнюю металевої скрині на збіжжя. Кружки обертаються гладко й свобідно. Ацемітова Любрикація Високого Тисиення запевняє гладку роботу всіх рухаючихся частей.

Ця гладка при роботі сіварка переведе вас через сіяння скоро. Вона є легка на коні або на трактор і легка до контрольования. **Massey-Harris No. 11** Сіварка робить свою роботу гладко - скільки, яку ви хочете, на акер паде в широкі борозни в глибині, в якій ви хочете сіяти, й є прикрита цілковито й рівномірно.

Massey-Harris No. 11 Сіварка на 1928 є вироблена у величинах 14, 16 і 20 рурок для ручного підношення; 20, 24 і 28 рурок для машинового підношення. Ацемітова Любрикація, сталеві колеса, і сталева скринка на збіжжя є звичайним заряджением. Осмотрена поєдиначими або подвійними клуками, самими або „дус". після замовления.

Massey-Harris No. 11 20-рурокова сіварка є найлекшу одним найлекшим 28-рурокова сіварка вироблена. Питайте свойого місцевого Massey-Harris агента о подробиці.



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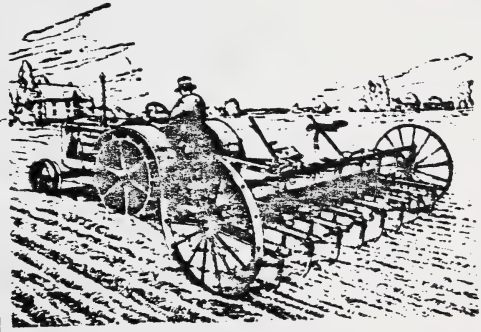
АГЕНЦІЇ ВСЮДИ.

Massey-Harris Cultivators

ВИРОБЛЯЮТЬ ЗЕМЛЮ ДОБРЕ Й СКОРО

„На три способи" прохід у всіх Massey-Harris Культиваторах



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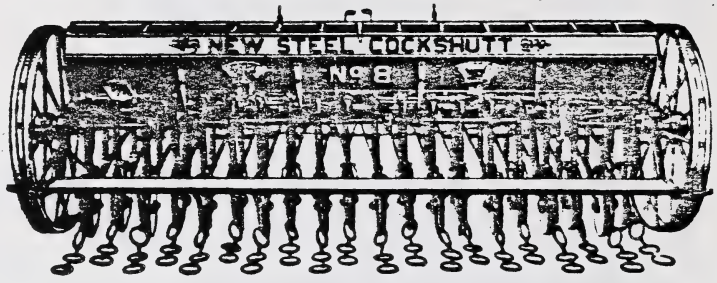
АГЕНЦІЇ ВСЮДИ.

Є НОВА!



Цілком зі сталі—Сарини на насіння є більша—"Hyatt" валкові осади—Алемітове спарювання—Надзвичайно міцна—Легка до тягнення.

NEW STEEL COCKSHUTT No. 8

Цим раз є Cockshutt в приводі. Цим разом фа[illegible] черезвичайно машинову, яка є за надзвичайно м[illegible] нечкова, що призвідщі вітрового збору. Нов[illegible] талева сварка No. 8 має так багато кращого [illegible] що ви повинні себе дійсно пристосувати [illegible] Машина є вироблена з сталі [illegible] надзвичайно тривка й міцна. Що крутиться [illegible] пильних. Гайдт валкових осадів [illegible] не частини мають Алемітове спарювання, то ви можете бути певними що тягнення є надзвичай[illegible]

COCKSHUTT

Cockshutt Plow Co. Limited Winnipeg Regina Saskatoon Calgary Edmonton

"Cockshutt машини роолять, що фарми лучше поплачуються"

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Rose Bronson
i) unrecorded interview by Sonia Maryn, February 15, 1984.
ii) unrecorded interview by Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984
iii) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, May 14, 1984.

George Elaschuk
i) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 12, 1984.
ii) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, June 1, 1984.

John Kvill
i) unrecorded interview by Sonia Maryn, May 24, 1984.

Bertha Palichuk
i) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, April 30, 1984.
ii) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 12, 1984
iii) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, May 24, 1984.

Clara Salahub
i) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.
ii) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, May 30, 1984.

Nick Salahub
i) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, May 4, 1984.
ii) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 9, 1984.

Peter Salahub
i) unrecorded interview by Sonia Maryn, January 27, 1984.
ii) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.
iii) unrecorded interview by Sonia Maryn, May 31, 1984.
iv) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, June 5, 1984.
v) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, June 7, 1984.

Vasyl Slemko
i) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, May 10, 1984.
ii) interview by Sonia Maryn, May 18, 1984.
iii) telephone interview by Sonia Maryn, June 1, 1984.

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